MANAGEMENT BASICS FOR INFORMATION PROFESSIONALS

BS (LIS)

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FOREWORD

Department of Library and Information Sciences was established in 1985 under the flagship of the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities intending to produce trained professional manpower. The department is currently offering seven programs from certificate course to PhD level for fresh and/or continuing students. The department is supporting the mission of AIOU keeping in view the philosophies of distance and online education. The primary focus of its programs is to provide quality education through targeting the educational needs of the masses at their doorstep across the country.

BS 4-year in Library and Information Sciences (LIS) is a competency-based learning program. The primary aim of this program is to produce knowledgeable and ICT-based skilled professionals. The scheme of study for this program is specially designed on the foundational and advanced courses to provide in-depth knowledge and understanding of the areas of specialization in librarianship. It also focuses on general subjects and theories, principles, and methodologies of related LIS and relevant domains.

This new program has a well-defined level of LIS knowledge and includes courses of general education. The students are expected to advance beyond their higher secondary level and mature and deepen their competencies in communication, mathematics, languages, ICT, general science, and array of topics social science through analytical and intellectual scholarship. Moreover, the salient features of this program include practice-based learning to provide students with a platform of practical knowledge of the environment and context, they will face in their professional life.

This program intends to enhance students' abilities in planning and controlling library functions. The program will also produce highly skilled professional human resources to serve libraries, resource access centers, documentation centers, archives, museums, information centers, and LIS schools. Further, it will also help students to improve their knowledge and skills of management, research, technology, advocacy, problem-solving, and decision-making relevant to information work in a rapidly changing environment along with integrity and social responsibility. I welcome you all and wish you good luck for your academic exploration at AIOU!

Prof. Dr. Zia Ul-Qayyum
Vice-Chancellor

PREFACE

Since an information professional works in different roles such as chief librarian, team leader, team member, therefore, understanding management is important for library and information science undergraduate students. For easy conceptualization of management basics for information professionals, each unit of course (9218) is structured in such a way that students can easily comprehend the topics covered in this study guide. Each unit starts with a brief introduction, objectives, and the topics discussed. At the end of each unit, activities and self-assessment questions are designed for the self-learning of students.

Unit 1 briefly explains what is management and operating environment. One of the important reasons for studying management is the reality that for most of you, once you graduate from university and begin your career, you will either manage or be managed. Moreover, for effective and efficient management, planning is critically important. Planning is often called the primary management function because it establishes the basis for all the other things managers do as they organize, lead, and control. Unit 2 explains planning, planning process, power, accountability, and responsibility. Unit 3 discusses how delegation and trust issues are important in achieving organizational strategic plans and goals. Moreover, it discusses teams, and the span of control, learning organization, decision making and types of decision, decision-making process, communication process, and the importance of communication skills for managers.

Innovation in libraries is essential to offer new services and at the same time to improve the existing ones, therefore, unit 4 briefly sheds light on changing, innovation, assessment, quality control, and operations. Moreover, marketing and advocacy are two important concepts from libraries' perspectives. Library and information science students should know how to market library services. Unit 5 has been designed to introduce the students to the concepts of marketing, advocacy, and motivation.

A leader is someone who can influence others and who has managerial authority. Leaders do not just lead by giving orders. To be a good leader, he/she should be capable to lead a team and be able to manage diversity. Unit 6 covers leadership, building teams, and addressing diversity. Moreover, information units require professional and para-professional staff to offer innovative services. For effective and efficient services, there is a need for financial resources and their management which is discussed in unit 7.

To meet the challenges of today's information exchange and sharing activities driven by the Internet and the World Wide Web, library and information science graduates need to possess the knowledge and skills to leverage the emerging technologies in libraries, therefore, unit 8 describes how to manage technologies as well as managing and planning physical facilities. No profession can serve the community without professional ethics. Unit 9 addresses ethics and their role in professional life, career planning process, the role of mentor in career planning, and work-life balance issues.

Prof. Dr. Syed Hassan Raza
Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities

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We are extremely grateful to the worthy Vice-Chancellor and Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities for us the opportunity to prepare this study guide for the BS (library & information science) program. With their kind support, this task has been made possible.

Special thanks to the Academic Planning and Course Production and Editing Cell of AIOU for their valued input to improve the quality of this study guide. We also thank of Mr. Muhammad Hameed, Composer for the formatting of the manuscript and the team of Print Production Unit, AIOU for final production of the study guide. We also appreciate the efforts of ICT officials, the staff of the Central Library and the LIS department to accomplish this academic task. In the end, we also appreciate the extended cooperation of the course team during this academic task.

Dr. Muhammad Arif
Assistant Professor

OBJECTIVES

After studying management basics for information professionals' course, students should be able to comprehend the following topics:

- Introduction and operating environment
- Legal issues and library management
- Planning process
- Power, accountability, and responsibility
- Delegating, and decision making
- Communicating
- Changing and innovating
- Assessment, quality control, and operations
- Marketing and advocacy
- Motivating
- Leading, and building teams
- Addressing diversity
- Staffing
- Managing money
- Managing technology
- Managing and planning physical facilities
- Ethics
- Planning your career

CONTENTS

Unit–1

(A) INTRODUCTION AND OPERATING ENVIRONMENT
(B) LEGAL ISSUES AND LIBRARY MANAGEMENT

Compiled by: Dr. Muhammad Arif

Reviewed by: Dr. Munazza Jabeen

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

The understanding of management and other related concepts, for example, legal issues related to privacy, laws of liability, contracts, licenses, copyrights, etc., are critically important for undergraduate students of library and information science (LIS). So, this unit explains in detail management, organization culture, organizational environment (internal and external environments), and the operating environment from an organizational perspective. It also discusses legal issues in library management. The following section sheds light on the unit objectives, activities, and self-assessment questions that support students' self-learning.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- what is management?
- why managers are important to organizations?
- who are managers and where do they work?
- the functions, roles, and skills of managers.
- the value of studying management.
- importance of organizational culture and environment.
- legal issues in library management.

1.1 MANAGEMENT

Management involves coordinating and overseeing the work activities of others so these activities are completed efficiently and effectively towards the achievement of organizational goals. Management can be defined as: (1) the pursuit of organizational goals efficiently and effectively by (2) integrating the work of people through (3) planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the organization's resources. Here efficiency refers to getting the most output from the least amount of inputs or resources. Managers deal with scarce resources such as people, money, and equipment and they want to use those resources efficiently. Efficiency is also referred to as "doing things right," which means, not wasting resources of an organization. But being efficient is not enough for organizations. Management is also concerned with employee effectiveness. Effectiveness is described as doing the right things, that is, doing those work activities that will result in achieving goals. In successful organizations, high efficiency and high effectiveness typically go hand in hand. Poor management, leads to poor performance, usually involves being inefficient and ineffective or being effective but inefficient (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011; Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

1.1.1 Role of Managers

Managers run large corporations, medium-sized businesses, and entrepreneurial start-ups. They are also found in government departments, hospitals, not-for-profit agencies, museums, schools, and even nontraditional organizations such as political campaigns and music tours (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Several attempts have been made to draw up lists of tasks that managers carry out. The French engineer, Henri Fayol, divided managerial work into the following five categories:

(a). Forecasting and planning,
(b). Building organizations and systems,
(c). Directing subordinates,
(d). Coordinating various activities across the business, and,
(e). Guiding these activities so that all parts of a business are working towards the same end.

One of the most famous management writers, Peter Drucker also divided managerial work into five categories: (1) setting objectives, (2) organizing, (3) motivating and communicating, (4) measurement of work accomplished, and (5) developing people. There are several similarities in the two categorizations, although there are a few differences as well. Neither list should be taken as absolutely complete, but both offer an idea of the nature of managerial work (Witzel, 2004).

1.1.2 Classifying managers

Managers can be classified as first-line, middle, or top-level managers. At the lowest level of management, first-line (or frontline) managers manage the work of non-managerial employees who typically are involved with producing the organization's products or servicing the organization's customers. These managers often have titles such as supervisors or even shift managers, district managers, department managers, or office managers. Middle managers manage the work of first-line managers and can be found between the lowest and top levels of the organization. They are designated as regional managers, project leaders, store managers, or division managers. Middle managers are mainly responsible for turning company strategy into action. At the upper levels of the organization are known as top-level managers, who are responsible for making organization-wide decisions and establishing the plans and goals that affect an entire organization. They may have titles such as executive vice president, president, managing director, chief operating officer, or chief executive officer (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

1.1.3 Managers Skills-Set

Managers are expected to possess three critical skills: (1) technical, (2) human, and (3) conceptual skills (Figure 1.1). Technical skills are job-specific knowledge and techniques needed to perform different work tasks. These skills are more important for first-line managers because they typically manage employees who use tools and techniques to produce products and services to customers. Often, employees with excellent technical skills get promoted to first-line manager. Managers with good human skills get the best out of their people. They know how to communicate, motivate, lead, and inspire enthusiasm and trust. Finally, conceptual skills are the skills that managers use to think and to conceptualize abstract and complex situations. Using these skills, managers see an organization as a whole, understand the relationships among various subunits, and visualize how an organization fits into its broader environment. Managers then can effectively direct employees' work. These skills are most important to top managers (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011). Figure 1.1 explains how management skills vary across top, middle, and lower-level managers.

Figure 1.1: Manager skills (Source: Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

1.1.4 Your Future as Manager

Students may be wondering why they need to study management. Whether you want to join accounting or marketing, library, or any field other than management, you may not understand how studying management helps an individual career. The very first important reason is the universality of management. Management exists in all types of organizations, in all areas, and at all levels. Figure 1.2 explains in a more exclusive way the need for management.

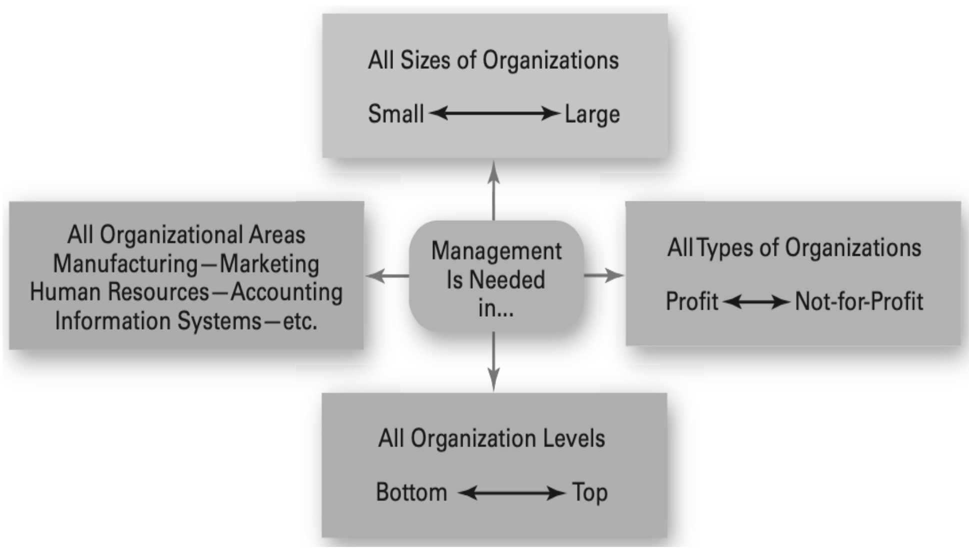

Figure 1.2: Universal need of management (Source: Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Another reason for studying management is the reality that for most of you, once you graduate and begin your career, you will either manage or be managed. For those who plan to be managers, an understanding of management forms the foundation upon which to build your management knowledge and skills. For those of you who do not see yourself managing, you are still likely to have to work with managers. Also, assuming that you will have to work for a living and recognize that you are very likely to work in an organization, you will probably have some managerial responsibilities even if you are not a manager. Our experience tells us that you can gain a great deal of insight into the way your boss (and fellow employees) behave and how organizations function by studying management. The third reason for studying management is the reward and challenges of being management. Table 1.3 explains how you will be rewarded as being a manager and what types of challenges you could face (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Table 1.3: Rewards and challenges of being a manager

Rewards	Challenges
• Create a work environment in which organizational members can work to the best of their ability • Have opportunities to think creatively and use imagination • Help others find meaning and fulfillment in work • Support, coach, and nurture others • Work with a variety of people • Receive recognition and status in organization and community • Play a role in influencing organizational outcomes • Receive appropriate compensation in the form of salaries, bonuses, and stock options • Good managers are needed by organizations	• Do hard work • May have duties that are more clerical than managerial • Have to deal with a variety of personalities • Often have to make do with limited resources • Motivate workers in chaotic and uncertain situations • Blend knowledge, skills, ambitions, and experiences of a diverse work group • Success depends on others' work performance

Source: Robbins & Coulter, 2017

1.1.5 Operating Environment

An organization indicates a conscious combination and the systematic arrangement of human, technological, financial, and physical resources. A business activity becomes a reality only when efforts are made to bring the required resources together and put them to work systematically with proper coordination of their activities. This is referred to as a business organization. A business enterprise is an economic institution as it is engaged in the production and/or distribution of goods and services to earn profits. It brings together the various components of business such as the workforce, raw materials, and capital, and utilizes these components in an effective and coordinated way to achieve the goal of earning profits (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Based on its ownership, a business organization can belong to the private sector or public sector, or it may be a public-private collaboration. In the private sector, business organizations take on various forms such as sole proprietorships, partnership firms, joint/undivided, joint-stock companies, and cooperative societies. In the public sector, the different types of organizations include departmental undertakings, public or statutory corporations, and government companies (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

1.1.6 Organization Environment

An organization is made up of internal and external environments. The internal environment comprises those elements of an organization or unit within which a manager works, such as its people, culture, structure, and technology. While the external environment (or context) consists of elements beyond an organization. It combines the competitive and general environments as shown in Figure 1.4 (Boddy, 2016).

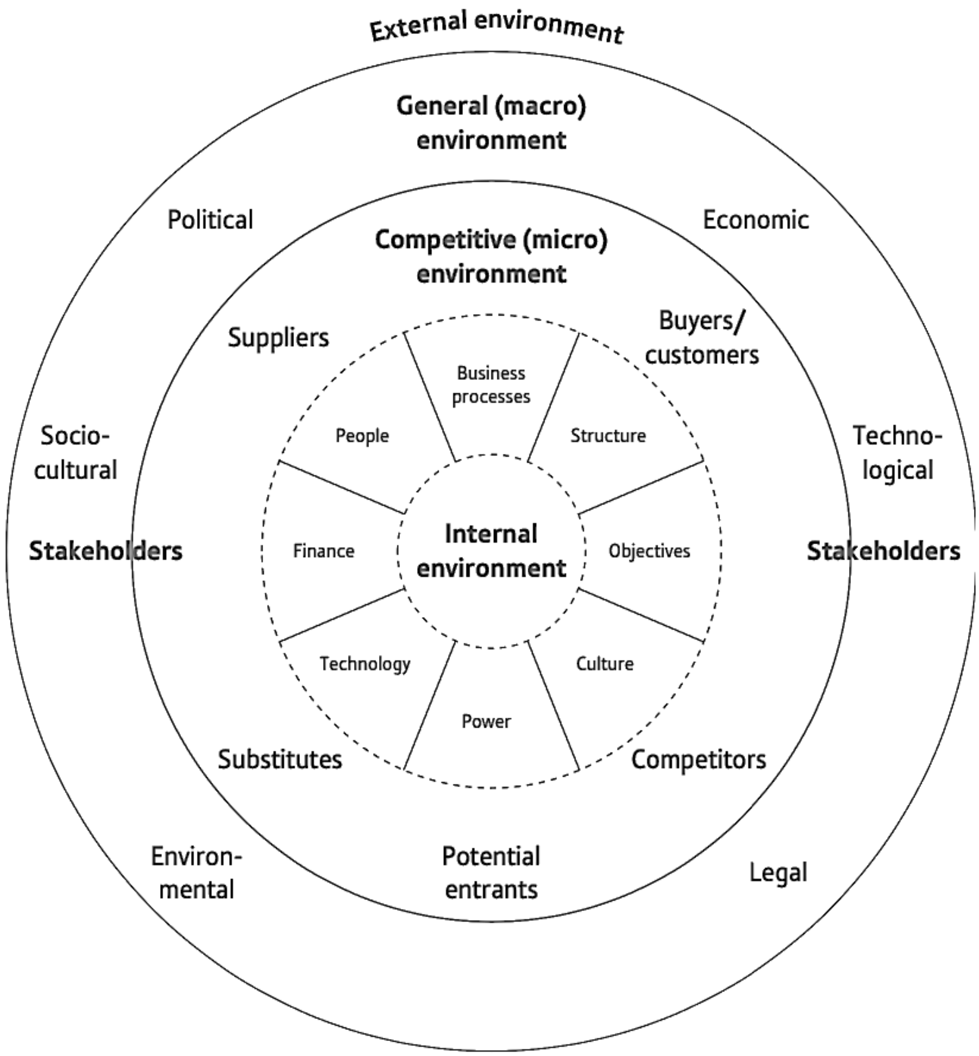

Figure 1.4: Environmental influences (Source: Source: Boddy, 2016).

A college, for example, is made up of a collection of academic departments, support staff, students, and the like. But it also exists as a system within the environment of education, having to be responsive to parents, alumni, legislators, nearby townspeople, and so on (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011).

Libraries have a tripartite environment. A few libraries exist as independent entities, rather they are part of a larger organization, a city, a university, a school district, or a corporation. As such, there is the internal library environment, over which managers have or should have reasonably good control. Second, there is the parent organizational environment, over which librarians may have some influence. Third, there is an environment beyond the parent institution, over which almost no one has control. All three-environment require monitoring of a library is to be successful (Evans & Alire, 2013)

1.1.7 Environment Scanning

Environmental scanning, which is the screening of large amounts of information to anticipate and interpret changes in an environment. Extensive environmental scanning is likely to reveal issues and concerns that could affect an organization's current or planned activities. Research shows that companies that use environmental scanning have higher performance. Organizations that do not keep on top of environmental changes are likely to experience the opposite (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Most libraries should examine some basic environmental factors regularly. These are some of the common factors:

(a). Customers: users' behaviour and needs are the foundation upon which one should build information services.

(b). Competitors/market: libraries face competition from one another as well as from other services.

(c). Funding sources: funding is crucial for effective library services and knowing what factors are affecting the source(s) is the key to successful planning.

(d). Suppliers: two key categories of suppliers are firms that provide information materials services (for example, jobbers and publishers) and those that handle library/information services technologies. Factors impacting such firms will impact the library and end users and vice versa.

(e). Labor issues: an important ongoing concern is the availability of qualified people for a position in libraries, both professional and support staff.

(f). Legal/regulatory factors: legal, regulatory, and legislative factors impact managerial actions in many ways from facilities to staff. A worldwide example of legal concern for libraries is copy right.

(g). Economic trends: Economic factors affect information services in two primary ways: what one can buy what available funds and how much money is available to spend.

(h). Technology: technology is a critical factor for information services.

(i). Politics changes/ trends: any library that derives a significant political trend. Thinking about the potential implications of a changing scene is useful when developing short-term and medium-term plans.

(j). Sociocultural factors: by sociocultural factors, we mean the values, attitudes, demographics, historic context, and customs of the society in which an organization operates.

All the above-mentioned factors have obvious implications for libraries (Evans & Alire, 2013).

1.1.8 Forecasting Environment

The second technique managers can use to assess the environment is forecasting. Forecasting is a key part of planning and managers need forecasts that allow them to predict future events effectively and in a timely fashion. Environmental scanning establishes the basis for forecasts, which are predictions of outcomes. Virtually any component in an organization's environment can be forecasted. Forecasting techniques fall into two categories: (1) quantitative and (2) qualitative. Quantitative forecasting applies a set of mathematical techniques to a series of past data to predict outcomes. These techniques are preferred when managers have sufficient actual data that can be used. In contrast, qualitative forecasting uses the judgment and opinions of knowledgeable individuals to predict outcomes. Qualitative techniques typically are used when precise data are limited or hard to obtain (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

1.2 ORGANIZATION CULTURE

Students if you experience visiting a department or organization for the first time you can usually sense and observe the surface elements of the culture. Some buzz with life and activity, others seem asleep; some welcome and look after visitors, others seem inward-looking; some work by the rules, while others are entrepreneurial and risk-taking; some have regular social occasions while in others staff rarely meet except at work (Boddy, 2016). Organizational culture has been described as the shared values, principles, traditions, and ways of doing things that influence the way organizational members act. In most organizations, these shared values and practices have evolved and determined, to a large extent, how things are done around here. This definition of culture implies three things. First, culture is a

perception. It is not something that can be physically touched or seen, but employees perceive it based on what they experience within the organization. Second, organizational culture is descriptive. It is concerned with how members perceive the culture and describe it, not with whether they like it. Finally, even though individuals may have different backgrounds or work at different organizational levels, they tend to describe the organization's culture in similar terms. That is called the shared aspect of culture (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

1.3 LEGAL ISSUES AND LIBRARY MANAGEMENT

Laws and rules and regulations play a role in many aspects of management in general and in the management of libraries in specific. Some laws apply to both profit and non-profit organizations. The management of a library means efficient and effective management of material, machinery, staff, and budget to meet the objectives of a library (Ranganathan, 1935).

1.3.1 Establishing a Library

All libraries or their parent organization have a legal basis. Some private academic institutions have state charters, and others are incorporated as a non-profit organization. Publicly supported academic institutions are legislatively established and, to a degree, controlled by legislative action (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Libraries, users, safety and the law

Part of a library manager's responsibility, regardless of what level of management, is to be a good custodian of resources and people involved in library services and activities. Libraries, whatever they may represent to the public, are also workplaces for their employees, and given human nature can become dangerous places to visit or in which to work. A recent study of violence in the workplace reveals that workers most at risk of workplace violence are those who deal with the public, exchange money, and deliver goods and services. Naturally, library staff is included in this at-risk category. When people do not feel safe in public buildings, they tend to avoid them (or working in them) for fear of danger, assault, injury, or worse. Other types of workplaces often have levels of security, commensurate with their functions, features and design, but most libraries are located in public places, with intentionally easy (or non-existent) admission requirements that place both employees and visitors at risk of violence. (Shuman, 2002).

Tort law and liability

Tort law provides monetary compensation to redress a plaintiff 's claim that the defendant injured his/her, interfered with his/her property, invaded his/her privacy, or invaded another legally protected interest. In some circumstances, where future

harm is threatened, equitable relief, usually in the form of an injunction, may be available. While the circumstances that led to the harm might also support a criminal prosecution, claim for breach of contract, or another civil law complaint, the law of torts focuses on non-contractual rights and liabilities arising where no one promised to pay for the damages and without regard to whether the government could prosecute the actor for a crime (Galligan, Haddon, Maraist, McClellan, Rustad, Terry, & Wildman, 2007).

In the library context, one of the most common concerns for library liability is personal injury, which is governed by tort law. Tort law addresses injuries, physical, mental, or emotional resulting from negligence or intentional acts. Libraries have been involved in litigation arising from both causes. For libraries, it is the negligence category that is most significant. An example of possible library negligence would be a failure of the staff to put out signs warning of slippery entryway floors on a rainy or snowy day and a person falls and injures himself or herself (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Malpractice and librarians

Malpractice is a complex issue with questions about the role of expertise, employee, employer, the person filing the lawsuit, and reasonable expectations. Is it reasonable that public service staff worry about malpractice? Let us take an example from Angoff (1976). In Angoff's story, the patrons were ready to file suit because they claimed they were injured when building a deck at their home after following the steps outlined in a book they checked out from the library. Angoff's antagonist even went so far as to state that the library and its "chief reference librarian were grossly negligent in continuing to circulate a long-antiquated volume and in so doing endangered the lives and homes of all library patrons who might consult it" (p. 489). Although the article was not based on an actual incident, in a sense, it was a wake-up call for the profession to start thinking about the possibility that such a case might happen one day.

Chances are very limited of your being named in a malpractice lawsuit when you are at a service desk at the time an injury occurs. However, it is not totally out of the question that you will be named a defendant as lawyers tend to name every possible person when filing such lawsuits. Also, as you assume more senior management roles, the risk increases. The library and its parent body will be the lead defendants as they have the "deep pockets;" however, you may also be named. While the parent institution is likely to cover legal fees, there may be instances where the individual's liability is such that the person will need to cover legal costs as well as any legal judgments. As a result, it is prudent to check with one's homeowner/renter's insurance to determine if the liability coverage also applies to

one’s work activities. If not, it may be wise to see what the cost of workplace liability may be. Some library associations offer such coverage to members (Evans, Saponaro, Christie, & Sinwell, 2015).

User privacy

All library staff must be familiar with privacy policies because chances are high that someday a citizen or government authority will request that a library discloses information on the reading habits or other library practices of a particular user. Staff members who receive requests of this type should refuse to comply and immediately report a request to their supervisor or otherwise follow their library’s policy (Evans, Saponaro, Christie, & Sinwell, 2015).

Contracts and licenses

Libraries normally have multiple contracts in force at any time, for example, system vendor contracts, book vendors, equipment maintenance, subscriptions, and janitorial services. There are also license agreements for the access/use of some service/product such as online databases. In the case of a contract, it is likely that a director signed a contract, but they may not be the staff person who implements the terms. The person doing the implementation must have a grasp of what the contract calls for to protect library.

What is the difference, if any, between a contract and a license? They are certainly related; however, there are differences, and understanding the differences can help a library avoid legal entanglements. A contract is a voluntary, deliberate, and legally enforceable (binding) agreement between two or more competent parties. Each party to a contract acquires rights and duties relative to the rights and duties of the other parties. A license is a revocable written (formal) or implied agreement by an authority or proprietor (the licensor) not to assert his or her right (for a specific period and under specified conditions) to prevent another party (the licensor) from engaging in a certain activity that is normally forbidden (such as making copies of a copyrighted work). Essentially a license is the privilege to use something under certain conditions (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Typical library licensing agreements outline the lessee’s (library) responsibility for such things as security, customer service, payment and delivery, limitations and warranties, termination, indemnification, and assignment. All of these factors can affect allowable use. Although adding lawyer fees to the cost of creating user-oriented services/collections is unappealing, the fact is that most of the vendors will negotiate changes, and librarians should demand changes that benefit or at least do not create unreasonable demands on the library and its users (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Copyright

Copyright has been a constant library legal issue for many years and becomes ever more complex as time goes by. The term copyright originated from the law's original purpose, to protect against unauthorized printing and selling a printed work. Today it is thought of as protecting intellectual property. It is a concept that relates to almost all formats that individuals and organizations produce in "hardcopy" or digitally. The complexity is a function of the variety of materials covered, and each new technology is viewed as a potential threat to the copyright holder's rights. The purpose of copyright is to promote the development and distribution of information while assuring the individual or group developing the idea or information has exclusive rights to profit from that activity (Evans, Saponaro, Christie, & Sinwell, 2015).

Documentation

Documentation is essential in building or defending a case. Documentation can range from an e-mail, transaction to something written on paper, anything that records what transpired (Evans & Alire, 2013).

1.4 ACTIVITIES

1 Interview two different managers and ask them the following questions: What are the best and worst parts about being a manager? What is the best management advice you ever received? Type up the questions and their answers to turn in to your professor.

2 If you have work experience, consider managers who you have encountered. Did you work with any good manager(s)? Did you work with any bad manager(s)? Based on your experience, create a list of traits or skills that good managers possess.

3 Visit a nearby university library and observe its culture, write it down, and present it to your course tutor in front of your class.

4 Explore the social media presence of your favorite company. Like Facebook page and follow it on Twitter, Instagram, and /or any other social media outlet the company uses. List down the external environment factors that could impact the operating environment of the company.

5 Visit a nearby university library, discuss with chief librarians how he/she is dealing with legal issues in the library. Based on the activity, prepare a report on the legal issues you discussed with the chief librarian and present it to your course tutor.

1.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain how and why library managers/librarians are important to the different types of libraries?

2. Describe what are the key functions, roles, and skills of managers in a big university library.

3. What are the different types of organizations and their environment?

4. To what extent organizational culture does impact the efficiency and effectiveness of the services being offered in a university library?

5. What do you think about legal issues in the management of a university and public libraries?

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Unit–2

(A) THE PLANNING PROCESS
(B) POWER, ACCOUNTABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

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Reviewed by: Dr. Munazza Jabeen

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

This unit explains planning, planning process, power, accountability, and responsibility. Planning is often called the primary management function because it establishes the basis for all the other things managers do as they organize, lead, and control (Robbins, Decenzo, & Coulter, 2013). The planning process involves implementing a plan and monitoring progress. A manager/librarian should be empowered to do work done by others. But at the same time, a manager should be accountable for all his actions. The following sections explain unit objectives, detailed discussion on planning, power, accountability, and responsibility followed by self-assessment questions and activities.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you would be able to:

- understand the nature and purposes of planning.
- linking strategic plans and goals, objectives, policies, and procedures.
- understand the concept of power, accountability, and responsibility.

2.1 PLANNING PROCESS

The activity of planning involves thinking and acting to gather relevant information about the task and its context. It requires deciding which goals (or objectives) to set, which have priority, and showing how to achieve them, including how to cope with distractions when time is limited. The planning process involves implementing a plan and monitoring progress. Goals are the desired future state of an activity or unit: achieving the end requires deciding the means of what needs to be done, by when, and by whom? A plan, if done well:

(a). Clarifies direction, so that people give attention and effort to the right tasks;
(b). Motivates people, by letting them see where their work fits into the whole;
(c). Uses resources efficiently by estimating the likely duration of tasks; and
(d). Increases control, by enabling people to protect their task from interference and to measure progress against targets (Boddy, 2016).

Good plans give direction to those doing the work by ensuring they know the larger purpose of an activity and how their work contributes to it. They can adjust their work intelligently with others so that everyone knows who is responsible for each task and that they do not overlook any. Knowing the result (the big picture) means they can respond to changes without waiting to be told, see their contribution, and may take more responsibility (Boddy, 2016).

2.1.1 Nature of Plan

The most popular ways to describe organizational plans are breadth (strategic versus operational), time frame (short term versus long term), specificity (directional versus specific), and frequency of use (single-use versus standing). As Figure 2.1 shows, these types of plans aren’t independent. That is, strategic plans are usually long-term, directional, and single-use whereas operational plans are usually short-term, specific, and standing. Strategic plans are plans that apply to the entire organization and establish the organization’s overall goals. Plans that encompass a particular operational area of the organization are called operational plans. These two types of plans differ because strategic plans are broad while operational plans are narrow. The number of years used to define short-term and long-term plans has declined considerably because of environmental uncertainty. Long-term used to mean anything over seven years. Try to imagine what you’re likely to be doing in seven years and you can begin to appreciate how difficult it would be for managers to establish plans that far in the future. Intuitively, it would seem that specific plans would be preferable to directional or loosely guided, plans. Specific plans are clearly defined and leave no room for interpretation. A specific plan states its objectives in a way that eliminates ambiguity and problems with misunderstanding. For example, a manager who seeks to increase his or her unit’s

work output by eight percent over a given 12-month period might establish specific procedures, budget allocations, and schedules of activities to reach that goal. However, when uncertainty is high and managers must be flexible to respond to unexpected changes, directional plans are preferable. Directional plans are flexible plans that set out general guidelines. They provide focus but don't lock managers into specific goals or courses of action. For example, Sylvia Rhone, president of Motown Records, said she has a simple goal to "sign great artists." So instead of creating a specific plan to produce and market 10 albums from new artists this year, she might formulate a directional plan to use a network of people around the world to alert her to new and promising talent so she can increase the number of new artists she has under contract. Keep in mind, however, that the flexibility of directional plans must be weighed against the lack of clarity of specific plans. Some plans that managers develop are ongoing while others are used only once. A single-use plan is a one-time plan specifically designed to meet the needs of a unique situation. For instance, when Walmart wanted to expand the number of its stores in China, top-level executives formulated a single-use plan as a guide. In contrast, standing plans are ongoing plans that guide activities performed repeatedly. Standing plans include policies, rules, and procedures (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

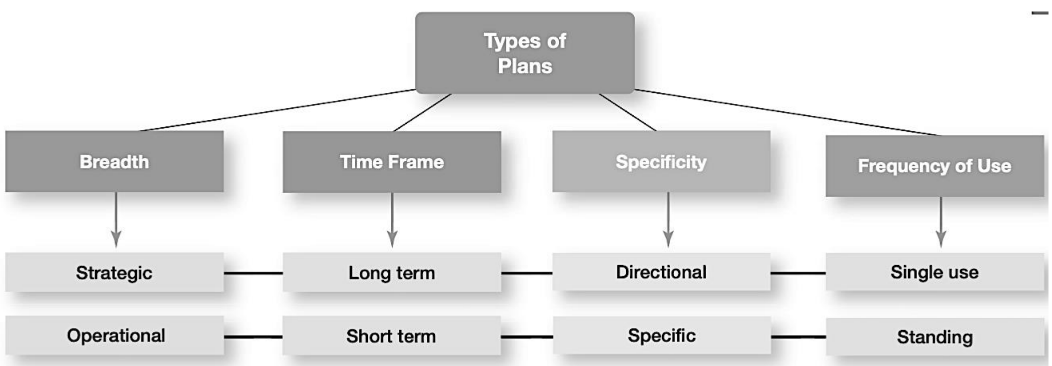

Figure 2.1: Types of plans (Source: Robbins & Coulter, 2017)

2.1.2 Strategic Planning

Strategic management is what managers do to develop an organization's strategies. It is an important task involving all the basic management functions planning, organizing, leading, and controlling. What are an organization's strategies? They are the plans for how the organization will do whatever it is in business to do, how it will compete successfully, and how it will attract and satisfy its customers in order to achieve (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). The strategic-management process has five steps, plus a feedback loop, as shown in Figure 2.2

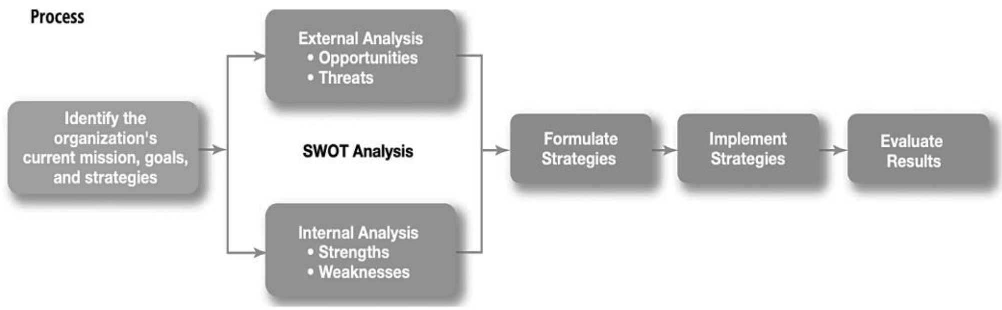

Figure 2.2: Strategic management process (source: Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

For better conceptualization of the strategic management process, a brief description of the five steps (Figure 2.2) is provided as follows:

Step–1: Identifying the organization's current mission, goals, and strategies
Every organization needs a mission, a statement of its purpose. Defining the mission forces managers to identify what it's in business to do. For instance, the mission of Avon is "To be the company that best understands and satisfies the product, service, and self-fulfillment needs of women on a global level." The mission of Facebook is "a social utility that connects you with the people around you." The mission of the National Heart Foundation of Australia is to "reduce suffering and death from heart, stroke, and blood vessel disease in Australia (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Step–2: SWOT analysis
The second step is to do a current reality assessment, or organizational assessment to look at where the organization stands and see what is working and what could be different so as to maximize efficiency and effectiveness in achieving the organization's mission. Among the tools for assessing, the current reality are strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) analysis (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd & Perry, 2011). In SWOT, managers analyze internal environment to identify strengths and weaknesses. What the organization does well, where it might do better and where it stands in relation to competitors (Boddy, 2106). While managers do an external analysis so they know, for instance, what the competition is doing, what pending legislation might affect the organization, or what the labor supply is like in locations where it operates. In an external analysis, managers should examine the economic, demographic, political/legal, sociocultural, technological, and global components to see the trends and changes (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Step–3: Formulate strategies
The next step is to translate the broad mission and vision statements into a grand strategy, which, after the assessment of the current reality, explains how organization's mission is to be accomplished. Three common grand strategies are

growth, stability, and defensive. Strategy formulation is the process of choosing among different strategies and altering them to best fit the organization's needs. Formulating strategy is a time-consuming process both because it is important and because the strategy must be translated into more specific strategic plans, which determine what the organization's long-term goals should be for the next 1-5 years (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd & Perry, 2011).

Step–4: Implement the strategy
Putting strategic plans into effect is strategy implementation. Strategic planning isn't effective, of course, unless it can be translated into lower-level plans. This means that top managers need to check on possible roadblocks within the organization's structure and culture and see if the right people and control systems are available to execute the plans (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd & Perry, 2011).

Step–5: Maintain strategic control: the feedback loop
Strategic control consists of monitoring the execution of strategy and adjusting, if necessary. To keep strategic plans on track, managers need control systems to monitor progress and take corrective action, early and rapidly, when things start to go awry. Corrective action constitutes a feedback loop in which a problem requires that managers return to an earlier step to rethink policies, redo budgets, or revise personnel arrangements (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd & Perry, 2011).

2.1.3 Scenario Planning

Scenario analysis is the creation of alternative hypothetical but equally likely future conditions. For example, scenarios may be created with spreadsheet software such as Microsoft Excel to present alternative combinations of different factors different economic pictures, different strategies by competitors, different budgets, and so on (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd & Perry, 2011).

2.1.4 Project Management

Different types of organizations, from manufacturers to software design firms use projects. A project is a one-time-only set of activities that has a definite beginning and ending point in time. More and more organizations are using project management because the approach fits well with the need for flexibility and rapid response to perceived market opportunities. When organizations undertake unique projects, have specific deadlines, contain complex inter-related tasks requiring specialized skills, and are temporary, these projects often do not fit into the standardized planning procedures that guide an organization's other routine work activities. Instead, managers use project management techniques to effectively and efficiently accomplish the project's goals (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

2.1.5 Value of Planning

Numerous studies have looked at the relationship between planning and performance. Although most showed generally positive relationships, we can't say that organizations that formally plan always outperform those that don't plan. Generally speaking, formal planning is associated with positive financial results—higher profits, higher return on assets, and so forth. Second, it seems that doing a good job planning and implementing those plans play a bigger part in high performance than does how much planning is done. Next, in those studies where formal planning didn't lead to higher performance, the external environment often was the culprit. When external forces like governmental regulations or powerful labor unions constrain managers' options, it reduces the impact planning has on an organization's performance. Finally, the planning-performance relationship seems to be influenced by the planning time frame. It seems that at least four years of formal planning is required before it begins to affect performance (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

2.2 POWER, ACCOUNTABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

Power is only effective if the target of an influence attempt recognizes the power source as legitimate and acceptable. If they dispute the knowledge base of a manager or challenge their positional authority over a matter, the influence attempt is likely to fail. Managers who are successful influencers ensure that they sustain their power sources and take every opportunity to enhance them. Managers can increase their power by, ironically by delegating some of it to subordinates. As subordinates carry out tasks previously done by the manager, he or she has more time to build external and senior contacts that further boost power. By delegating not only tasks but also lines of supply, information, and support, managers develop subordinates' confidence, and at the same time enhance their power. They can spend more time on external matters, making contacts, keeping in touch with what is happening and so building their visibility and reputation. On the other side, a weak or fearful manager who fails to delegate, and who looks inward rather than outward, will become increasingly isolated and powerless (Boddy, 2016).

Defining power has been difficult for management scholars. Tjosvold and Wisse (2009) presented six assumptions on power:

(a). Power as the potential to influence another's action.
(b). Power as the potential to overcome resistance.
(c). Power as the potential to affect outcome.
(d). Power as the potential to bring about desired change.
(e). Power as actual influence.
(f). Power as actually overcoming resistance.

Cartwright (1965) presented five sources of power and mentioned that most managerial power is the combination of these categories:

(a). Legitimate power and authority are the same. Legitimate power represents the power a leader has as a result of his or her position in the organization. Although people in positions of authority are also likely to have reward and coercive power, legitimate power is broader than the power to coerce and reward.

(b). Coercive power is the power a leader has to punish or control. Followers react to this power out of fear of the negative results that might occur if they don't comply. Managers typically have some coercive power, such as being able to suspend or demote employees or assign them to work they find unpleasant or undesirable.

(c). Reward power is the power to give positive rewards. A reward can be anything that a person values such as money, favorable performance appraisals, promotions, interesting work assignments, friendly colleagues, and preferred work shifts or sales territories.

(d). Expert power is a power that's based on expertise, special skills, or knowledge. If an employee has skills, knowledge, or expertise that are critical to a workgroup, that person's expert power is enhanced.

(e). Referent power is the power that arises because of a person's desirable resources or personal traits. If I admire you and want to be associated with you, you can exercise power over me because I want to please you. Referent power develops out of admiration of another and a desire to be like that person (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

2.2.1 Authority and Accountability

Authority means accountability that managers must report and justify work results to the managers above them. Being accountable means, you have the responsibility for performing assigned tasks (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd & Perry, 2011). Accountability refers to the rights inherent in a managerial position to make decisions, give orders, and utilize resources. Authority is distinguished from power, which, as it is the extent to which a person can influence others so they respond to orders. In the military, of course, orders are given with the expectation that they will be obeyed, disobedience making one liable to a dishonorable discharge or imprisonment. In civilian organizations, disobeying orders may lead to less dire consequences (demotion or firing), but subordinates are still expected to accept that a higher-level manager has a legitimate right to issue orders (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd & Perry, 2011).

Accountability means that people with formal authority over an area are required to report on their work to those above them in the chain of command (Boddy, 2016).

2.2.2 Governance

Administrative accountability is a significant factor in library governance. There are few libraries with the exception of those in the for-profit sector that do not have some type of board of committee that has some oversight of their activities. For example, most academic libraries have some type of "library committee", consists of concerned campus stakeholders. Public libraries generally have a board of trustees and school libraries have school boards that take an interest in their operations. Boards almost always have legally based oversight responsibilities. Although most academic library committees are advisory in character and appointed or elected, there are times when the question arises of just how advisory is (Evans & Alire, 2013).

2.2.3 Responsibility

Responsibility is the obligation that one has to perform the tasks assigned. Responsibility is a person's duty to meet the expectations associated with a task. The production director and the hydraulics foreman are responsible for the tasks that go with those positions. To fulfill those responsibilities, they require the formal authority to manage resources (Boddy, 2016). A car assembly-line worker has little authority but also little responsibility: just install those windshields over and over. A manager, however, has greater responsibilities. It is a sign of faulty job design when managers are given too much authority and not enough responsibility, in which case they may become abusive to subordinates and capricious in exerting authority. Conversely, managers may not be given enough authority, so the job becomes difficult (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011).

2.2.4 Status

Status, power, and authority are linked. Changes in authority or responsibility usually bring about changes in status. When you are thinking about changing some workplace activities, devote some time to thinking about the potential impact of the change(s) on the involved staff members' status. What you may think of as a very minor change, your staff may view as significant. Knowing if the change will have a positive or a negative impact on someone's status requires your having had long-term work relationships with the staff. Thus, think things through carefully when you are the new person and are tempted to be the "new broom" that will quickly set something right in the unit. The status that staff members assigned to an individual is not entirely the result of formal authority and rank. Some individuals dislike taking orders from anyone they consider equal to themselves unless they believe the individual has earned the right to do so through demonstrated work performance. For example, a person may take orders from a peer in areas where that peer has more experience or skill. The use of titles and other status symbols can be helpful but also dangerous. You should not use titles or status symbols as a substitute for real rewards for work performance. When using titles, be sure to use them for clearly defined activities and abilities. Many libraries do not make a clear distinction among the abilities, skills, and training required for top-grade support

staff and beginning librarians. Some job descriptions are so confusing that you cannot readily determine whether the position requires, for example, the abilities of a paraprofessional or a professional. Confusion as to role, status, and authority often results in poor work performance, communication, and morale. There should be clear-cut distinctions among titles, and the titles should be applied consistently throughout the library (Evans & Alire, 2013).

2.2.5 Visible and Invisible Organization

All organizations have both visible (formal) and invisible (informal) structures. Most organizations have an organizational chart, which is a way of describing the official governance structure, the visible structure. Usually, it reflects a hierarchical structure to some degree. Each level on the chart reflects an increase in power, authority, and accountability from bottom to top. It also reflects the official line of communication. There is also the invisible organization. Often it is this informal side that reflects the actual flow of communication and the drivers of work performance. Organizational culture, office, office politics, and personal influences are some of the factors that create and maintain the informal organization (Evans & Alire, 2013).

2.3 ACTIVITIES

1. What types of planning do you do in your personal life? Describe these plans in terms of being (a) strategic or operational, (b) short term or long term, and (c) specific or directional.

2. Take an example of any government plan and analyze its possible outcome.

3. Due to pandemics like CIVID-19, organizations are struggling to make strategies for maximum utilization of their available resources and handle the current situation for future survival. Academic institutions have no exception in this case. Assume an academic institution (you may take the example of any university in Pakistan). Keeping in view the strategic management process, formulate a hypothetical strategy for the universities in the current situation.

4. Organizations that fail to plan are planning to fail. Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Explain with solid arguments.

2.4 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTION

1. Define planning and planning process.
2. Explain five iterative tasks in planning, why people plan, and the content of several types of plans.
3. Why empowering a manager is important. Explain different sources of power.
4. Differentiate responsibility and authority with real-time examples.

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Unit–3

(A) DELEGATING, AND DECISION MAKING
(B) COMMUNICATING

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

This unit explains in detail how delegation and trust issues are important in achieving organizational strategic plans and goals. Moreover, issues related to team formation and delegating responsibilities and the importance of communication skills for managers have been discussed in this unit. Activities followed by self-assessment questions are described for the self-learning of the students.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- delegation and trust issues in organizations
- basic concepts of teams, and span of control
- concept of a learning organization
- steps in the decision-making process
- decision making and types of decision
- importance of communication skills for managers
- communication process
- organizational barriers to communication
- written and oral communication
- communication preferences of different age groups in a library
- channels of communication within a library

3.1 TRUST AND DELEGATION

Trust among individuals is a critically important factor that supports the smooth, efficient, and effective functioning of any organization. While delegation is the process of creating an order or structure for handling the activities that a library wishes to accomplish. Delegation and planning are tightly linked. Perhaps in the distant past, a manager might have been able to create an operational structure and never think about restructuring or changing it again. Any manager today doing that will have a failure on her or his hand. Librarians must be flexible in their planning process to remain viable. Thus, it becomes imperative to rethink and restructure the organization fairly often (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Delegation occurs when people transfer responsibility and authority for part of their work to people below them in the hierarchy. The production director is responsible for all work in that area, and can only do this by delegating. They must account for the results but pass responsibility and necessary authority to subordinates – and this continues down the hierarchy. Delegating to subordinates enables quicker and better-informed decisions by people familiar with the issue, and may also develop their initiative and sense of responsibility. Some managers are reluctant to delegate, fearing it will reduce their power (Boddy, 2016).

Trust and delegation go together. Without trust, the delegation will not be effective. Trust need to be present between managers and their bosses and between managers and their staff. In this perspective, technology is an essential part of teamwork, and it is vital to knowledge management, where every person need to share information fully (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.2 CREATING A STRUCTURE OR RESTRUCTURING

Few topics in management have undergone as much change in the past few years as that of organizing and organizational structure. Managers are re-evaluating traditional approaches to find new structural designs that best support and facilitate employees' doing the organization's work, designs that can achieve efficiency but are also flexible (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Managers whether start from scratch or thinking about restructure, they need to focus following four areas:

(a). Understand priorities of organization's goals.
(b). Understand talent pool. Examine what types of skills, background each staff member have for carrying out required activities.
(c). Available resources for restructuring.
(d). Addresses physical space issues in case of restructuring is based on expansion (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.3 DELEGATION OPTIONS

There are several options available for organizing or re-structuring work assignments. Each one of them has some merits as well as demerits. The choices could be made based on the preferences of the parent organization. The major options are:

(a). Functional/commonality
(b). Customer/user
(c). Territorial
(d). Equipment/ process/user frequency
(e). Product
(f). Matrix
(g). Teams
(h). Committee
(i). Degree of centralization/decentralization
(j). Span of control
(k). Operation costs
(l). Accountability (Evans & Alire, 2013).

There are several situations where some of the options mentioned above become suitable and vice versa. For example, a territorial approach focuses on service points where distance is an issue. Similarly, the customer/user option is useful in circumstances where a library wishes to address some special needs of a class of users (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.4 TEAMS

Work teams differ from work groups and have unique traits. Work groups interact primarily to share information and to make decisions to help each member do his or her job more efficiently and effectively. There is no need or opportunity for work groups to engage in collective work that requires a joint effort. On the other hand, work teams are groups whose members work intensely on a specific, common goal using their positive synergy, individual and mutual accountability, and complementary skills. The types of teams can be of several forms, formal or informal, self-managing or virtual (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.4.1 Formal Team

Managers create formal teams as they shape the organization’s basic structure, and allocate specific tasks to them. These teams consist of a manager and his or her subordinates within a single department or function. The manager and staff in the treasury department of a bank, or the senior nurse, nursing staff, and support staff

in a unit of the Hospital, are formally constituted into (possibly several) vertical teams. Horizontal teams consist of staff from roughly the same level but from several functions (Boddy, 2016).

3.4.2 Informal Groups

Informal groups are a powerful feature of organizational life. They develop as day-to-day activities bring people into contact and they discover common sporting or social interests. Work-related informal groups arise when people exchange information and ideas. Those in separate departments dealing with the same customer may pass information to each other to avoid misunderstandings, even though this is not a requirement (Boddy, 2016).

3.4.3 Self-managing Teams

Self-managing teams are responsible for a complete area of work and operate without close supervision. Members are responsible for doing the work but have a high degree of autonomy in how they do it: they manage themselves, including planning, scheduling, and assigning tasks among members (Boddy, 2016).

3.4.4 Virtual Teams

Modern communications technologies enable and encourage people to create virtual teams, in which the members are physically distant for most of the time, even though they are expected to deliver a collective outcome. Virtual teams use computer technology to link members – smartphones, email, videoconferencing and online discussion. They can perform all the functions of a team that is in the same place, but lack face-to-face interaction and discussion that helps working relationships (Boddy, 2016).

3.4.5 Committees

Committees are important to an organization in several ways. They can serve in an advisory/information capacity, promote coordination and cooperation, improve communication, handle short-term projects and make decisions. Although rhetoric about committees is often negative, everyone continues to use them. The reality is that committees, although occasionally ineffective, are frequently the best means of accomplishing a specific goal (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.4.6 Span of Control

The span of control refers to the number of employees a manager supervises. The trend in recent years has been toward larger spans of control, which is consistent with managers' efforts to speed up decision making, increase flexibility, get closer to customers, empower employees, and reduce costs. Managers are beginning to recognize that they can handle a wider span when employees know their jobs well

and when those employees understand organizational processes (Quinn, 2010; Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.4.7 Centralization/Decentralization

Centralization is the degree to which decision-making takes place at the upper levels of an organization. If top managers make key decisions with little input from below, then the organization is more centralized. On the other hand, the more that lower-level employees provide input or make decisions, the more decentralization there is. Keep in mind that centralization-decentralization is not an either-or concept. The decision is relative, not absolute. It means that an organization is never completely centralized or decentralized. Today, managers often choose the amount of centralization or decentralization that will allow them to best implement their decisions and achieve organizational goals. What works in one organization, however, won't necessarily work in another, so managers must determine the appropriate amount of decentralization for each organization and work units within it (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Many organizations including libraries, decentralize some areas and not others. For example, the large metropolitan library decided to decentralize the "sales" decision and centralize the "financial" decisions (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.4.8 Learning Organization

Learning organization is an organization that has developed the capacity to continuously learn, adapt, and change. In a learning organization, employees continually acquire and share new knowledge and apply that knowledge in making decisions or doing their work. Some organizational theorists even go so far as to say that an organization's ability to do this—that is, to learn and to apply that learning that may be the only sustainable source of competitive advantage (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.5 DECISION MAKING ENVIRONMENT

A decision is a choice made among available alternatives. Decision-making is the process of identifying and choosing alternative courses of action (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011).

3.5.1 Types of Decision

Managers in all kinds of organizations face different types of problems and decisions as they do their jobs. Depending on the nature of a problem, a manager can use one of two different types of decisions.

(a). Structured problems and programmed decisions.

Some problems are straightforward. The decision maker's goal is clear, the problem is familiar, and information about the problem is easily defined and complete.

Examples might include when a customer returns a purchase to a store, when a supplier is late with an important delivery, a news team's response to a fast-breaking event, or a college's handling of a student wanting to drop a class. Such situations are called structured problems because they are straightforward, familiar, and easily defined. For structured problems, a manager does not have to go to the trouble and expense of going through an involved decision process, so they usually follow programmed decisions (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

(b). Unstructured problems and non-programmed decisions.

Not all the problems managers face can be solved using programmed decisions. Many organizational situations involve unstructured problems, which are problems that are new or unusual and for which information is ambiguous or incomplete. Whether to build a new manufacturing facility in China is an example of an unstructured problem. So, too, is the problem facing restaurant managers in New York City who must decide how to modify their businesses to comply with the new law? When problems are unstructured, managers must rely on non-programmed decision-making to develop unique solutions. Non programmed decisions are unique and nonrecurring and involve custom-made solutions (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.5.2 Styles of Decision Making

Management writers use a number of labels for decision-making styles. One major influence on organizational decision-making style is your risk tolerance. A second factor is your "value" orientation, that is, how much importance you place on task/technical issues versus people/social issues. Managers and individuals employ several styles of decision making, adjusting the style to the circumstances; however, they usually have a favored approach based on their past experiences.

Broadly following categories of decision-making style could be created:
(a). Directive style
(b). Analytical style
(c). Behaviour style
(d). Conceptual style
(e). Reflexive style (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.5.3 Problem-Solving and Rational Decision Making

Managers are expected to be rational when making decisions. They understand that good decision maker are supposed to do certain things and exhibit good decision-making behaviors as they identify problems, consider alternatives, gather information, and act decisively but prudently. When they do so, they show others that they are competent and that their decisions are the result of intelligent deliberation. However, a more realistic approach to describing how managers make decisions is the concept of bounded rationality, which says that managers make

decisions rationally, but are limited (bounded) by their ability to process information. Because they can't possibly analyze all information on all alternatives, managers satisfice, rather than maximize. That is, they accept solutions that are "good enough." They're being rational within the limits (bounds) of their ability to process information. Problem-solving is the first step in almost any decision-making situation. The most commonly used model in problem-solving is eight-step model as shown in Figure 3.1 (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

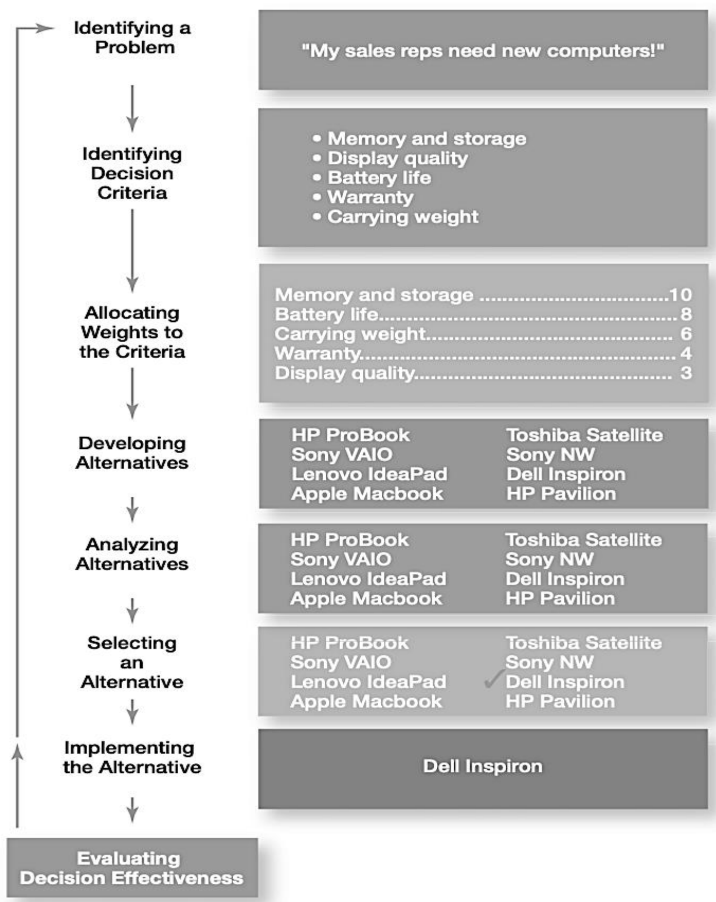

Figure 3.1: Steps in decision making (Source: Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.5.4 Decision and Accountability

People who are afraid of making a mistake try to avoid making decisions in hopes of avoiding accountability for decisions that go wrong. From an organizational point of view, decision making normally calls for clear-cut accountability on someone's part. Accountability is one reason that committee decision-making may well be problematic (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.5.5 Group Decision Making

Studies show that managers may spend up to 30 hours a week in group meetings. Undoubtedly, a large portion of that time is spent formulating problems, developing solutions, and determining how to implement the solutions. Groups can be assigned any of the eight steps in the decision-making process. Groups generate more complete information and knowledge. They bring a diversity of experience and perspectives to the decision process that an individual cannot. In addition, groups generate more diverse alternatives because they have a greater amount and diversity of information. Next, groups increase acceptance of a solution. Group members are reluctant to fight or undermine a decision that they helped develop. Finally, groups increase legitimacy. Decisions made by groups may be perceived as more legitimate than decisions made by one person (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Group decisions also have disadvantages. One is that groups almost always take more time to solve than it would take an individual. Another is that a dominant and vocal minority can heavily influence the final decision. In addition, groupthink can undermine critical thinking in the group and harm the quality of the final decision. Finally, in a group, members share responsibility, but the responsibility of any single member is ambiguous (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.5.6 Decision Aids

Qualitative and quantitative dissemination methods continue to evolve as new and innovative decision aids are created. Examples are disease-specific patient chat rooms and physician-only message boards to websites where personal diagnosis information is entered for analysis (Nutt, & Wilson, 2010).

Like other business organizations, libraries face ever-increasing pressure to be accountable. One very valuable tool to demonstrate accountability is hard data. Such hard data as a percentage of increased usage, the number of reference questions answered, and number of documents delivered are also useful in making decisions. Without question, decisions informed with hard data carry greater credibility than those not so informed. Other tools such as data mining and bibliomining, linear programming, simulation modeling, queuing theory, decision tree, matrix algebra, and linear mathematical equations are also being used as decision aids in library context (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.6 COMMUNICATING

Communication happens when people share information to reach a common understanding. Managing depends on conveying and interpreting messages clearly so that people can work together. Speaking and writing are easy: achieving a common understanding is not. Background and personal needs affect our ability to absorb

messages from those with different histories, but until people reach a common understanding, they have not completed the communication episode (Boddy, 2016).

3.6.1 Communication Process

We communicate whenever we send a message to someone and as we think about what he or she says in return. This is a subtle and complex process, through which people easily send and receive wrong message. Whenever someone says: 'That's not what I meant' or 'I explained it clearly, and they still got it wrong there has been a communication failure. We waste time when we misunderstand directions, or cause offence by saying something the listener misinterprets. We infer meaning from words and gestures and then from the person's reply to our message. We continually interpret their messages and create our own. Communication requires at least two people a sender and a receiver. The sender initiates communication when they try to transfer ideas, facts or feelings to receiver and the person to whom they send the message. The sender encodes the idea they wish to convey into a message by using syols words, actions or expressions. Figure 3.2 explains communication process more explicitly (Boddy, 2016).

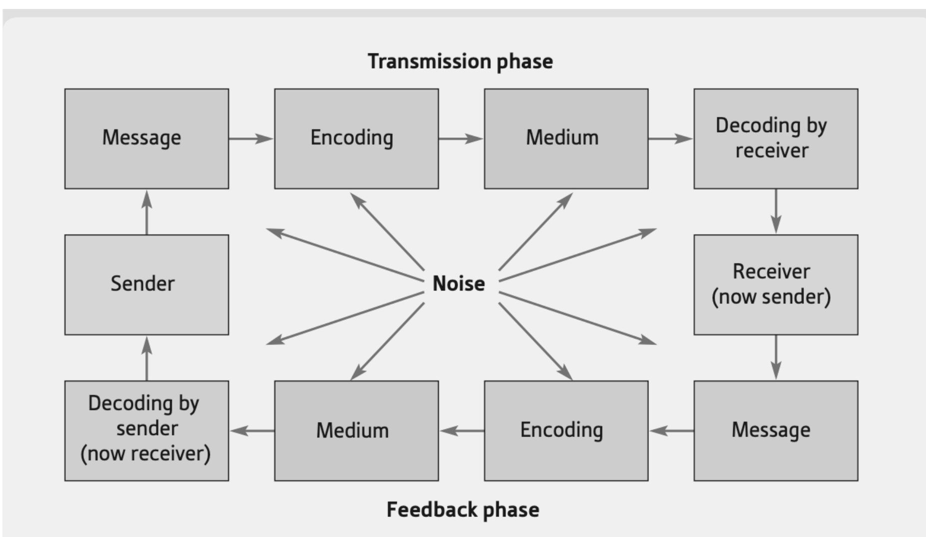

Figure 3.2: Communication process (Boddy, 2016)

3.7 ORGANIZATIONAL BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

There are several barriers to communication from organizational perspective. Some of the key barriers to effective communication in organizations are explained in the following section.

3.7.1 Filtering

Filtering is the deliberate manipulation of information to make it appear more favorable to the receiver. For example, when a person tells his or her manager what the manager wants to hear, information is being filtered. Or if information being communicated up through organizational levels is condensed by senders, that's filtering. How much filtering takes place tends to be a function of the number of vertical levels in an organization and the organizational culture. The more vertical levels in an organization, the more opportunities there are for filtering. As organizations use more collaborative, cooperative work arrangements, information filtering may become less of a problem. In addition, e-mail reduces filtering because communication is more direct. Finally, organizational culture encourages or discourages filtering by the type of behavior it rewards. The more that organizational rewards emphasize style and appearance, the more managers may be motivated to filter communications in their favor (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.7.2 Emotions

How a receiver feels when a message is received influences how he or she interprets it. Extreme emotions are most likely to hinder effective communication. In such instances, we often disregard our rational and objective thinking processes and substitute emotional judgments (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.7.3 Information Overload

A marketing manager goes on a week-long sales trip to a country where he does not have access to his e-mail, and he faces 1,000 messages on his return. It is not possible to fully read and respond to each message without facing information overload, which is when information exceeds our processing capacity. Today's employees frequently complain of information overload. Statistics show that 87% employees use e-mail and that the average business e-mail user devotes 107 minutes a day to e-mail—about 25 percent of the workday. Other statistics show that employees send and receive an average of 150 e-mail messages every day. And the number of worldwide e-mail messages sent daily is a staggering 97.3 billion. Demands of keeping up with e-mail, text messages, phone calls, faxes, meetings, and professional reading create an onslaught of data. What happens when individuals have more information than they can process? They tend to ignore, pass over, forget, or selectively choose information. Or they may stop communicating. Regardless, the result is lost information and ineffective communication (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.7.4 Defensiveness

When people feel they are being threatened, they tend to react in ways that hinder effective communication and reduce their ability to achieve mutual understanding.

They become defensive-verbally attacking others, making sarcastic remarks, being overly judgmental, or questioning others' motives (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.7.5 Language

Conservative author/journalist Ann Coulter and Rapper Nelly both speak English, but the language each uses is vastly different. Words mean different things to different people. Age, education, and cultural background are three of the more obvious factors that influence the language a person uses and the definitions he or she gives to words. In an organization, employees come from diverse backgrounds and have different patterns of speech. Even employees who work for the same organization but in different departments often have different jargon-specialized terminology or technical language that members of a group use to communicate among themselves (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.7.6 National Culture

For technological and cultural reasons, the Chinese people dislike voice mail. This general tendency illustrate how communication differences can arise from national culture as well as different languages. For example, let's compare countries that value individualism (such as the United States) with countries that emphasize collectivism. In an individualistic country like the United States, communication is more formal and is clearly spelled out. Managers rely heavily on reports, memos, and other formal forms of communication. In a collectivist country like Japan, more interpersonal contact takes place, and face-to-face communication is encouraged. A Japanese manager extensively consults with subordinates over an issue first and draws up a formal document later to outline the agreement that was made (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.7.7 Generational Communication Preferences

Today's workplace is perhaps the most diverse in terms of number of generations working together. Older staff members, who might well have retired in the past by this time, are staying on the job as a result of the recent deep recession and slow economic recovery. Retirement funds were reduced by huge amounts, and one of the mainstays of retirement support-a person's home-lost major value. Thus, it is common for libraries to have three and sometimes four generations on the staff. The different generations have different views about communication and how to carry out such efforts. Understanding the preferences will improve library communication (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.7.8 Communication Needs

It is by communicating ideas that people add value through innovation, quality, delivery and cost. Innovation depends on good information about customer needs and relevant discoveries which comes from communication with the scientific

community. Embodying ideas in products requires communication within cross-functional teams, and with suppliers and customers. Enhancing quality depends on everyone understanding what quality means to the customer as without communication there is no quality. Another measure of performance is delivery means supplying customers with what they expect, when they expect it. That is only possible if people communicate accurate, reliable and timely information up and down the supply chain (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

One ongoing communication challenge for managers, at all levels, is being able to strike the appropriate balance between providing too much and not enough information. In medium-sized and large library staffs, a manager will never be able to satisfy everyone; some people will want more, and others will want less. This is similar to staff meetings; some individuals think there too many, and some think there are too few. You try for the middle ground and see what the results are and then adjust with more or less information (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.8 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Communication within an organization is described as formal or informal. Formal communication refers to communication that takes place within prescribed organizational work arrangements. For example, when a manager asks an employee to complete a task, that's formal communication. Another example of formal communication occurs when an employee communicates a problem to his or her manager. Informal communication is organizational communication not defined by the organization's structural hierarchy. When employees talk with each other in the lunch room, as they pass in hallways, or as they are working out at the company wellness facility, they engage in informal communication. Employees form friendships and communicate with each other. The informal communication system fulfills two purposes in organizations: (1) it permits employees to satisfy their need for social interaction, and (2) it can improve an organization's performance by creating alternative, and frequently faster and more efficient, channels of communication (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

3.8.1 Written and Oral Communication

In today's world of rapid-fast communication via texts and emails, most of us would rather shoot off a written message than make a phone call. It's fast, efficient when used properly, and it provides a nice document trail for our work records. Written communication is more important than ever, yet very few people know when writing is the right – or wrong – form of communication, and fewer still can write well. Of course, like all other communicate (Training, 2012).

Oral communication can be more difficult for audiences because it happens in real time and in the presence of other people. In some situations, written communication will be more successful because it gives the recipient the opportunity to translate in private and at his or her own pace. When speaking to people whose native language is not your own, you will find these tips helpful:

1. Speak clearly, simply, and relatively slowly. Pronounce words clearly, stop at distinct punctuation points, and make one point at a time.
2. Look for feedback, but interpret it carefully. Nods and smiles don't necessarily indicate understanding.
3. Rephrase if necessary. If someone doesn't seem to understand you, rephrase using simpler words.
4. Clarify your meaning with repetition and examples. Use concrete and specific examples to illustrate difficult or vague ideas.
5. Don't talk down to the other person. Don't blame the listener for not understanding. Say, "Am I going too fast?" rather than "Is this too difficult for you?" (Bovee & Schatzman, 2010).

3.8.2 Listening

Listening is an essential life skill. Popular phrases such as "Look at me while I am talking to you!" and "Are you listening?" as well as the need to "be heard" by "a listening ear" suggest a universal recognition of the importance of listening (Bodie, 2012). Speaking is, of course, only one side of the oral communication story. In fact, you spend over half your communication time listening. Generally, miscommunications stem from a failure to listen to and understand the needs of the others (Bhatnagar & Bhatnagar, 2012).

Good listeners are rare these days. Studies have shown that most listeners retain less than 50% of what they hear. Imagine what that means when it comes to a conversation that you might have with your boss, a colleague, or a customer. If you speak for ten minutes, chances are that you have only heard about half of that conversation. No wonder miscommunications happen so frequently! Yet listening is one of the most vital skills that you need if you want to communicate effectively. Listening allows you to 'decode' the messages that you are receiving, but it also allows you to help others communicate better. When you aren't certain of the message that you have heard the first time, listening well allows you to ask the questions that will clarify the message. We listen for multiple reasons:

(a). To build relationships,
(b). To understand others
(c). To be entertained
(d). To learn
(e). To show empathy, and
(f). To gather information (Wood, 2011).

3.8.3 Other Issues in Communication

Some people appear attentive when their minds are far, far away. The nonverbal cues suggest to the speaker that the listener is listening. If there is no feedback when the speaker finishes, a normal assumption is that the message was understood when in fact nothing came through. Body language and the other signs we give, often unconsciously, can impede communication. Face-to-face communication entails more than the words said and how they are said. Everyone in a conversation sends a variety of "messages" through nonverbal actions. Such as by language tone, speed, facial expressions, gestures, body posture etc. People also send intended or unintended messages by the color of clothes, the way they arrange their office furniture, and seating arrangements for meetings etc. When working in a culturally diverse library or one that serves a diverse population, having a sound grasp of the nonverbal side of things is very important. For example, in western European, "comfort zone" for conversation between people is at least three feet away from the others. In fact, a wider spacing is often preferred. While people from Latin America or Asia prefer to be much closer (one foot on average). Similarly, eye contact is another area where culture matters. Most children with a Western European background learn early on to look at their parents. While for most Native American groups and most Asian peoples, on the other hand, direct eye contact is thought to be impolite at best and rude at worst. So, it is important to understand such issues while communicating (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.9 CHANNELS, DIRECTION AND LEGITIMACY

Organizational communication can flow: downward, upward, laterally, or diagonally. Downward communication flows from a manager to employees. It's used to inform, direct, coordinate, and evaluate employees. When managers assign goals to their employees, they're using downward communication. They're also using downward communication when providing employees with job descriptions, informing them of organizational policies and procedures, pointing out problems that need attention, or evaluating their performance. Downward communication can take place through any of the communication methods we described earlier. Upward communication is communication that flows from employees to managers. It keeps managers aware of how employees feel about their jobs, their coworkers, and the organization in general. Managers also rely on upward communication for ideas on how things can be improved. Communication that takes place among employees on the same organizational level is called lateral communication. While Diagonal communication is communication that crosses both work areas and organizational levels (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Although the classic functions of the manager are to make decisions and to give orders, the reality is that they occupy only a small proportion of the time spent in

communicating. In a library, a vast amount of communicating takes place among peers in order to get tasks done. This type of communication in a collective enterprise involves not only the formal structures but also the informal structures (status structure, friendship structure, prestige structure, etc.) of a library. All of these are in constant flux, contradicting the notion that all communication in an organization is downward and horizontal. People communicate in order to achieve a goal, to satisfy a personal need, or to improve their immediate situation with respect to their personal desires. People need to communicate with those of higher status than themselves, which means that managers need to spend time with their subordinates. The effectiveness of this will depend on the individual relationships between supervisors and subordinates and the degree to which each subordinate's needs are satisfied by upward communication. Picking a proper channel for your message takes some experience. It is important to remember that what was the proper channel in your last library may not be in your new library (Evans & Alire, 2013).

3.10 ACTIVITIES

1. Visit your university library and observe a team formation and tasks performed by team members.

2. Search Internet that how 'learning' environment assists in keeping the library vital and viable as well as providing growth and development opportunities to staff.

3. Read some scholarly publications on decision-making. Answer the question, why decision making is often described as the essence of a manager's job?

4. Search Internet. And explain what the barriers to effective communication are? How can those barriers be overcome?

5. Research the characteristics of a good communicator. Keeping these characteristics in mind, practice being a good communicator-both as a sender and a listener.

6. For one day, keep track of the types of communication you use. Which do you use most? Least? Were your choices of communication methods effective? Why or why not? Could they have been improved? How?

7. Visit your campus library and explain how do social technologies affect managerial communication?

8. Visit a university library and write down the communication medium preferences of people working in the library in different age groups.

9. Reflect on the communication needs of library users, drawing on your experience of using a university library. Write down six needs that are important to you.

3.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How do delegation and delegating assist in achieving the library's strategic plans and goals?

2. What is a span of control?

3. What is the role of centralization and decentralization in organization decision-making?

4. What are different types of decisions?

5. Define communication, interpersonal communication, and organizational communication.

6. What are the functions of communication?

7. What are the barriers to effective communication? How can those barriers be overcome?

8. Describe the eight steps in the decision-making process.

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Unit–4

(A) CHANGING AND INNOVATING
(B) ASSESSMENT, QUALITY CONTROL AND OPERATIONS

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

This unit discusses key concepts that support students to learn theoretical and practical knowledge about change management and innovation, assessment, quality control, and operations in libraries. Libraries like other organizations are growing organisms. So if we do not improve and manage technology, processes, people, and innovative services in libraries we cannot offer state-of-the-art services to their customers in the competitive knowledge-based economy. Moreover, innovation and creativity are key concepts for all types of students so that they could be successful both in their student and professional lives. Creativity is the process of producing/generating new ideas, while innovation is about implementing a new idea in an organization. Thus, this unit is designed in such a way so that students could comprehend change management and innovation, assessment, quality control, and operations in libraries. Further, to improve self-learning, activities and self-assessment questions are placed at the end of this unit.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you would be able to:

- nature of change
- change process model
- resistance to change in library environment
- implementing change
- stress and organization
- innovation and libraries
- innovation techniques
- assessment and accountability
- performance analysis
- quality and quality control
- assessment tools
- user data collection methods

4.1 CHANGE AND INNOVATION

Ever since the "Big Bang" occurred, change has been a constant in the universe. When humans began creating societies hundreds of thousands of years ago, the pace of social change was very slow. With the start of the industrial revolution, the pace accelerated. Today the pace of change is almost mind-boggling, especially for organizations. You get a sense of that when you see some companies offering packages that allow you to upgrade your purchase if a new model comes on the market, the time frame for most of those agreements is 24 months (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Innovation can be the development of either new products and services to sell to customers or new ways of making products and services that reduce costs or increase efficiency (or both). Innovation is in turn dependent on knowledge (Witzel, 2004). Today, any organization that treats change as the occasional disturbance in an otherwise calm and stable world runs a great risk. Too much is changing too fast for an organization or its managers to be complacent. It's no longer business as usual. And managers must be ready to efficiently and effectively manage the changes facing their organization or their work area (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

4.1.1 Nature of Change

Managers face three main types of change: structure, technology, and people (Figure 5.1). Changing structure includes any change in structural variables such as reporting relationships, coordination mechanisms, employee empowerment, or job redesign. Changing technology encompasses modifications in the way work is performed or the methods and equipment that are used. Changing people refers to changes in attitudes, expectations, perceptions, and behavior of individuals or groups (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

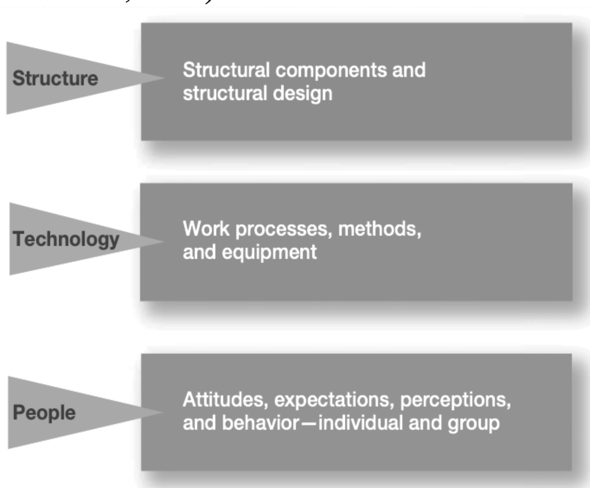

Figure 5.1. Types of Change (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Some libraries are now amongst the most highly diversified organizations in the world. In terms of the spread of resources they make available, and the extensive development and variation in services that has been accompanied by significant role change, they are in many ways models of diversification in a managerial sense. Because of new configurations which have brought libraries into relationships with other services, and encouraged in their wake an influx of staff from different disciplines, with different traditions of training and education and different perspectives, most libraries now exhibit considerable variety in their services and their staffing. These conditions have been created, at least in part, by the development of technology. It is because of technology that libraries can now be staffed by combinations of:

(a). Librarians
(b). Technologists
(c). Graphic designers
(d). Media technicians
(e). Other non-librarians of various types (Pugh, L. (2016).

Technology has contributed much to the broadening of the scope of library operations. It is technology which has created a requirement for library staff who have matured in different environments and bring different viewpoints, skills and experience to the task of managing and operating in organizations. This multiplicity of perspectives is an important factor in change management, provided that it is used in the right way (Pugh, 2016).

4.1.2 Change Process Model

Change is an organizational reality. Organizations face change because external and internal factors create the need for change. If it weren't for change, a manager's job would be relatively easy. Planning would be simple because tomorrow would be no different from today. The issue of effective organizational design would also be resolved because the environment would not be uncertain and there would be no need to redesign the structure. Similarly, decision-making would be dramatically streamlined because the outcome of each alternative could be predicted with almost certain accuracy (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Successful change can be planned and requires unfreezing the status quo, changing to a new state, and refreezing to make the change permanent. The status quo is considered equilibrium. To move away from this equilibrium, unfreezing is necessary (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Unfreezing is a process for creating a readiness to acquire or learn new behaviors. This means assisting staff in recognizing the ineffectiveness of the current behavior

in terms of the area of the planned change. It also means pointing out how the change will benefit the staff and the organization (e.g., a task will take less time, a task will be less stressful, the organization will stay viable in a changing environment). Unfreezing staff may be a time-consuming process, and without their active participation, it will be difficult. Not only do people need to adjust to change but also, in many cases, the organizational culture needs to adjust as well. Without completing this process, you are not likely to achieve long-lasting change. Changing is the period when staff begins to work with the new behavior pattern. More often than not, there will be a testing period first while staff members make up their minds about the new situation. You should be watchful during the changing period, as staff may begin to slip back into the old pattern. You should be even more supportive than usual during this period. Refreezing takes place when the staff internalizes the change and it becomes part of the organizational culture. Rewards for implementing the new pattern are a key factor in achieving refreezing (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Lewin's three-step process treats change as a move away from the organization's current equilibrium state (Figure 5.2). It is a calm waters scenario where an occasional disruption (a "storm") means changing to deal with the disruption. Once the disruption has been dealt with, however, things can continue under the newly changed situation. This type of environment isn't what most managers face today (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

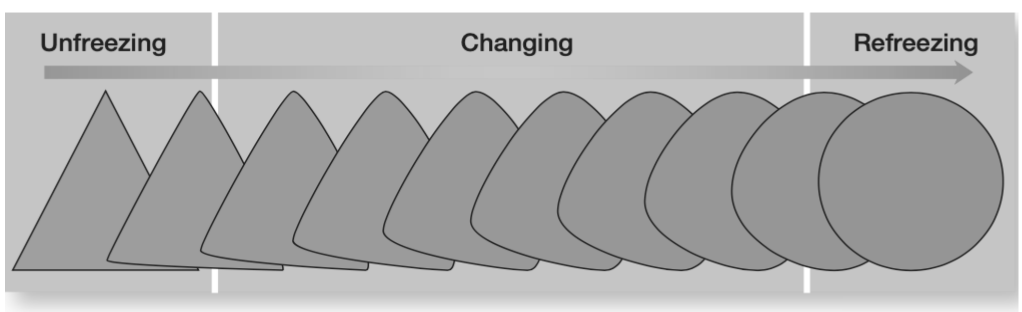

Figure 5.2. The three steps change process (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

John Kotter (1990) expanded Lewin's three-phase model by breaking down Lewin's steps into eight smaller components (Figure 5.3). During the unfreezing process he suggested that managers should establish a sense of urgency, create a "guiding" coalition, develop a vision and strategy for the change, and finally communicate the change vision. His components for the change phase are empowered staff for action, generating some short-term "wins," and consolidate gains (don't declare victory too soon). The only difference between Lewin's

refreezing stage and Kotter's "anchoring" stage is that Kotter points out that it may take years for change(s) to be anchored and become a part of the organizational culture. Kotter's (1990) model is successfully used today (Evans & Alire, 2013).

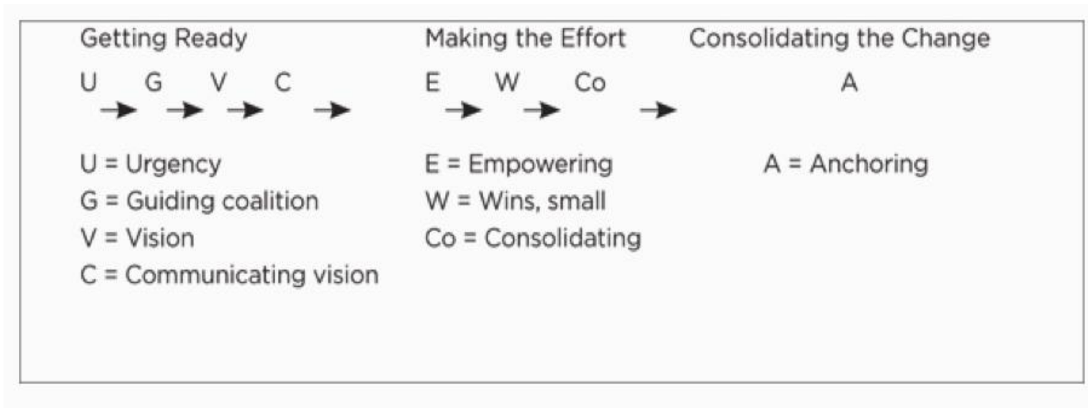

Figure 5.3 Kotter's Change model (Evans & Alire, 2013).

4.1.3 Resistance to Change

Change is not easy in any organization, but it can be particularly challenging for entrepreneurial ventures. Even if a person is comfortable with taking a risk as an entrepreneur, usually are change can be hard. That's why an entrepreneur needs to recognize the critical role he or she plays in stimulating and implementing change (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

A few people resist change based on some type of fear. One obvious fear relates to the job or wage security. Change generally brings uncertainty that goes well beyond one's job. Today's status quo is known and is, to a greater or lesser degree, comfortable. "What will happen to my work relationships?" is a common issue. Possible loss of control regarding one's status, power, and future prospects, for example, may play a role for some people. Change often calls for new duties that may require learning new skills. Learning anxiety is a very real issue for many people. The anxiety can lead to serious resistance when something like a new software package is introduced. Lack of information and poor communication are other causes of resistance. The more you explain the exact nature of change and listen to staff concerns, the less likely the staff are to actively resist. Open and honest communication is a key component to achieving a successful change. People who understand the change and its necessity are more accepting of change than are those who do not understand (Evans & Alire, 2013).

For example, when quality control methods based on statistical models are introduced into manufacturing plants, many quality control inspectors have to learn

the new methods. Some may fear that they will be unable to do so and may develop a negative attitude toward the change or behave poorly if required to use them (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

4.1.4 Implement Change

Organizational development (OD) is a set of techniques for implementing planned change to make people and organizations more effective (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011). The approach has been used since the end of World War II. Over the years the focus has shifted in emphasis from its initial concern with creating a "mechanistic" (scientific management) method of managing organizations to today's need to manage change. OD's primary focus is on people who are or will be undergoing an organizational change process. Some of the most frequent uses of OD are assisting with mergers, managing conflict, and revitalizing organizations (Evans & Alire, 2013).

4.1.5 Stress and Organization

Workplace stress is very common. It can and does arise from many causes. Without too much debate, it seems clear that organizational change is one of the leading causes of stress for many employees. One question is, is workplace stress always a bad thing? The answer is, not always (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Stress is the adverse reaction people show if excessive pressure is placed on them from extraordinary demands, constraints, or opportunities. Although it is often discussed in a negative context, stress can be positive, especially when it offers a potential gain. For instance, functional stress allows an athlete, stage performer, or employee to perform at his or her highest level at crucial times. However, stress is more often associated with constraints and demands. A constraint prevents you from doing what you desire; demands refer to the loss of something desired. When you take a test at school or have your annual performance review at work, you feel stressed because you confront opportunities, constraints, and demands. A good performance review may lead to a promotion, greater responsibilities, and a higher salary. But a poor review may keep you from getting the promotion. An extremely poor review might lead to your being fired (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

4.1.6 Innovation and Libraries

Is there a difference between creativity and innovation? The most straightforward answer is that creativity is the process of producing/generating new ideas, while innovation is about implementing a new idea in an organization. Thus, it is possible to be "innovative" through the introduction of a new idea for your organization even if the idea itself has existed for some time and/or has been used in other organizations (Evans & Alire, 2013).

The outcomes of the creative process need to be turned into useful products or work methods, which is defined as innovation. Thus, the innovative organization is characterized by its ability to channel creativity into useful outcomes. When managers talk about changing an organization to make it more creative, they usually mean they want to stimulate and nurture innovation (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

4.1.7 Innovation Techniques

Some techniques can assist an individual in generating new ideas about ways of behaving or doing things. These operational techniques help people to overcome their fear of using their imaginations by enabling them to move back to the childhood pattern of asking "why," "what if," and "how." They then explore their environment to find the answers. Table 5.1 provides some suggestions for how to encourage staff to think in new ways (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Table 5.1. Techniques to foster new thinking

Method	Process
"Logical/problem-solving approach"	1. Start with a defined situation/activity. 2. Identify all elements of the situation/activity. 3. List all possible changes/options." 4. Consider each change/option against others. 5. Assess consequences.
Input/output	1. Identify desired outcome in broad terms. 2. List all possible changes/options that could lead to desired outcome. 3. Assess consequences.
Free association/brainstorming	1. Provide a very general frame of reference for discussion (do not define the problem). 2. Encourage any and all thoughts even tangentially related to the topic under consideration. 3. Assess ideas after the flow of ideas/thoughts ceases.

Note: These methods work best with small groups.

4.2 ASSESSMENT, QUALITY CONTROL, AND OPERATIONS

In response to increasing public scrutiny of the benefits of higher education as the costs of an education escalate and as segments of the public (e.g., the business community) view higher education as inadequately preparing graduates to participate in careers and society, an increased emphasis on institutional accountability has surfaced. Regional accrediting bodies that are responsible for

accrediting institutions of higher education are involved in a nationwide effort to ensure that academe becomes more accountable. They are doing so by requiring institutions to demonstrate their overall effectiveness: both institutional efficiencies (e.g., fiscal responsibilities) and educational quality. Accrediting agencies are strengthening their requirements about accountability, revising their standards to be less prescriptive (providing higher education institutions with more options to present in their self-study report), and requiring the application of outcomes assessment measures, especially regarding educational quality and its continuous improvement. These trends affect academic libraries. First, librarians do not like the generality associated with less prescriptive accrediting standards. Second, some regional accrediting agencies have revised their standards to emphasize information literacy as a student learning outcome, and they have suggested roles for academic libraries to play. Fortunately, the Association of College and Research Libraries has created several documents that provide excellent assistance for librarians as they adapt to the changing accreditation landscape (Hernon, & Dugan, 2002).

4.2.1 Assessment and Accountability

Today, parent organization administrators; federal, state, and local governmental authorities; and users and the general public are demanding that institutions be accountable. They want evidence of value for monies provided. Libraries are attempting to address the accountability challenge through new "and more purposeful assessments that go beyond quantifying inputs and outputs. For much of the twentieth century large libraries, and academic libraries in general, were often viewed by funders as "black holes," absorbing ever greater quantities of money and little evidence of positive outcomes. What funders now want is evidence or, to use a business term, ROI (return on investment). The trend calling for increased accountability is driven by economic pressures on all funding agencies. This in turn has led to greater concern about the outcomes of all expenditures. Many libraries are moving toward more user-centered assessments that measure how a library affects its users. Most notable in this change is the growing popularity of assessing the quality of library services. To do this many library are moving toward assessing outcomes, especially in the context of how the library program affects users. In higher education, for example, the regional accrediting associations have modified their standards to include requirements to document learning out" "comes as evidence of student learning, and libraries are called on to provide evidence of their contribution to the teaching and learning mission of the parent institution (Evans & Alire, 2013).

4.2.2 What is Quality

Quality refers to the total ability of a product or service to meet customer needs. Quality is seen as one of the most important ways of adding value to products and

services, thereby distinguishing them from those of competitors. Two traditional strategies for ensuring quality are quality control and quality assurance (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011).

Over time, libraries have used various indicators to assess and convey quality, quality can be related to; Quality of services, standards, goal attainment, performance measures, user satisfaction, meeting user expectations, and examines users' perceptions of service. Quality might even be viewed in terms of technical quality and customer quality. The former relates to the mechanical and procedural aspects that ensure that services function effectively and efficiently. Any measure of technical quality is an internal indicator of service performance as driven by operational specifications. Customer quality, on the other hand, relates to user perceptions of service delivery, and it includes those factors that users judge to be important. In other words, customer quality, or the customer's view of quality, equals service quality (Hernon, & Dugan, 2002).

4.2.3 Assessment Tools

Selecting which data collecting approach to adopt depends to a great extent on the reason for the assessment. For example, is it intended to:

(a). meet the requirements of an external body (e.g., government or accreditation);
(b). examine how well the library meets one or more professional standards;
(c). examine performance in a holistic way;
(d). examine the efficiency of service delivery;
(e). gather the users' views of the service; or
(f). be an ongoing data gathering exercise?

You have to stay well-informed about the current objectives, policies, and procedures of the agencies that take an interest in library operations. The data/information collected for addressing outside interests also forms part of the internal management information system (Evans & Alire, 2013).

4.2.4 User Data Collection Methods

Libraries' service communities' views regarding library quality are essential to understand for several reasons. Obviously those views play, or should play, a key role in making adjustments in programs and services. Perhaps even more important is the impact those views may have on library funding levels and funding authorities. Such views, whether positive or negative, can and do impact library usage levels, which will in turn influence library support.

Individual and group interviews and mailed and telephone surveys have a long history of use by libraries for gathering service community data. One more recent technique for more targeted local information is focus groups.

Focus groups are intended to elicit information about individuals' thoughts and views about some topic or issue. The technique involves a small group of individuals and a researcher/moderator. The researcher serves as moderator, listener, observer, and ultimately analyst. As the name suggests, the topic under discussion is narrow/focused (such as the usefulness of the library's web presence). To have some assurance of valid results, at least three groups should make up your sample. In general, the usefulness and validity of the collected data depend on the groups' comfort in sharing views that may not be thought popular. A moderator/researcher must have some skill in assessing an individual's comfort level as well as the group's and make the environment as nonthreatening as possible (Evans & Alire, 2013).

4.2.5 Quality Control

Quality control is referred to how will quality be assured and maintained? (Witzel, 2004). "One of your responsibilities as a manager is to monitor and control the performance of your unit. What this means is that you must coordinate activities, ensure performance quality, and control operating costs, no small task. The control process has four components: establishing standards, measuring performance, comparing/evaluating performance against standards, and correcting deviations from the standards. Elements in these components are typically quality, quantity, time, and cost (Evans & Alire, 2013).

4.3 ACTIVITIES

1. Browse the Internet and explore graduates from which disciplines can join library employment in the Pakistani context.

2. Which is more critical to success in organizations: continuous improvement or quality control? Support your position.

3. Can a low-level employee be a change agent? Explain your answer.

4. Organizations typically have limits to how much change they can absorb. As a manager, what signs would you look for that might suggest that your organization has exceeded its capacity to change?

5. Why do people resist change? How can resistance to change be reduced?

6. Planned change is often thought to be the best approach to take in organizations. Can unplanned change ever be effective? Explain.

7. Innovation requires allowing people to make mistakes. However, being wrong too many times can be disastrous to your career. Do you agree? Why or why not? What are the implications for nurturing innovation?

8. Deepen your understanding of the reasons why the managers and executives above you may be resistant to change. If you cannot talk to your direct supervisor about this topic, find others at that level who would be willing to speak with you about the organization’s culture.

4.4 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by change?

2. How change process model could be implemented in the university library context?

3. What is meant by quality control?

4. Explain how innovation can be implemented in libraries?

5. Are you able to explain Lewin’s three-step model of the change process?

6. Why do people resist change? How can resistance to change be reduced?

7. Which method is best for data collection?

8. Explain how quality control is important in library operations?

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Unit–5

A) MARKETING AND ADVOCACY
(B) MOTIVATING

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade, there has been an enormous emphasis on the library as a place, and we have seen the emergence of large computer labs, cafes, wireless Internet access, and comfortable furniture. These renovations have led to a tremendous surge in attendance, and in many cases, libraries have become popular locations on campus. And so, if our buildings are filled, then why do we need to promote them? With gate counts and website hits rising, do we need to invest time, money, and effort in advertising? While more and more students may be visiting the library, the real question is, are they aware of everything that we have to offer? Just because they are in our buildings doesn't necessarily mean that they are using library services effectively (Mathews, 2009). So this unit has been developed to introduce LIS BS students to marketing, why marketing in libraries, and motivation behaviour. Specifically, what is marketing, and what are the steps in the marketing process? What are motivation and motivational theories? The theoretical and practical knowledge and skills of marketing and motivation are essential for an undergraduate student. The unit activities and self-assessment questions based on the two concepts support students' self-learning.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, would be able to:

- what is marketing?
- why libraries need marketing?
- the marketing process
- internal and external marketing issues
- branding
- public relations
- promotion
- advocacy
- performance and motivation
- motivation behaviour
- content theories
- process theories
- reinforcement theories
- what is motivation?
- what are motivational theories?

5.1 WHAT IS MARKETING?

Marketing deals with identifying and meeting human and social needs. One of the shortest definitions of marketing is “meeting needs profitably.” Whether the marketer is Procter and Gamble, which notices that people feel overweight and want tasty but less fatty food and invents Olestra; or CarMax, which notes that people want more certainty when they buy a used automobile and invents a new system for selling used cars; or IKEA, which notices that people want good furniture at a substantially lower price and creates knock-down furniture. These all illustrate a drive to turn a private or social need into a profitable business opportunity through marketing. We can distinguish between a social and a managerial definition for marketing. According to a social definition, marketing is a societal process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating, offering, and exchanging products and services of value freely with others. As a managerial definition, marketing has often been described as “the art of selling products (Philip, 2002).

The library as a physical place attracts and retains customers. The layout of library, appropriate signage, comfortable furniture, Internet access, availability of copy machines and printers, attentive and helpful personnel – all contribute to attracting customers and making them to want to return. The library’s ‘products’ are the programs and services the library offers to its customers. These products include interlibrary loan, references services, children’s programming, web access and many others. Many marketing texts suggest differentiating your products, features, and benefits – a feature is something that is intrinsic to the product and benefits consist of the intangible reward experienced though the product. For example, the books and reference services (feature) provide resources for lifetime learning (benefit). The library building (feature) provides space for the community to gather and learn (benefit). Marketers tend focus on the benefits in promoting organizations, as this tends to be more effective than just listing features and hoping the customer will provide the associated benefits (Rossiter, 2008).

Traditionally library’s services are free except, for example, for overdue fines, copying, printing, movie rentals, and some research services. However, every service and product has its price. Books and other materials cost money, personnel require salary, furniture, office equipment and supplies, computers – everything has a price, plus other direct and indirect expenses occur. Consider also what a trip to the library is worth to users in terms of time to get to the library, time to learn the systems, or time to use the services. Libraries operate in a competitive environment and must be creative with services and products they deliver to the customers. It means that they must advertise their services and make themselves distinguishable and recognizable as information providers. Some libraries advertise through the website and via e-mails, as well as through printed materials such as flyers, brochures, magnets, and cards. Others offer incentives when promoting programs

and special events. These incentives include coupons to local restaurants, gifts, and museum passes. Some libraries also create awareness among the community, so-called 'buzz' about the library (Rossiter, 2008).

5.1.1 Marketing Process

Philip (2002) explained that in order to understand the marketing process fully, we must first look at how a company defines its business. The task of any business is to deliver value to the market at a profit. There are at least two views of the value-delivery process. The traditional view is that the something and then sells it. In this view, marketing takes place in the second half of the value-delivery process. The traditional view assumes that the company knows what to make and that the market will buy enough units to produce profits for the company. Companies that subscribe to this traditional view have the best chance of succeeding in economies marked by goods shortages in which consumers are not fussy about quality, features, or style. But the traditional view of the business process will not work in more competitive economies in which people face abundant choices. The "mass market" is actually splintering into numerous micro markets, each with its own wants, perceptions, preferences, and buying criteria. The smart competitor therefore must design the offer for well-defined target markets.

The Value-Delivery Sequence is at the core of the new view of business processes, which places marketing at the beginning of the planning process. Instead of emphasizing making and selling, companies see themselves involved in a three-phase value creation and delivery sequence. The first phase, choosing the value, represents the strategic "homework" that marketing must do before any product exists. The marketing staff must segment the market, select the appropriate market target, and develop the offer's value positioning. In the second phase, providing the value, marketers detail the product's specifications and services, set a target price, then make and distribute the product. Developing specific product features, prices, and distribution occurs at this stage and is part of tactical marketing. The task in the third phase is communicating the value. Here, further tactical marketing occurs in utilizing the sales force, sales promotion, advertising, and other promotional tools to inform the market about the product. Thus, the marketing process actually begins before there is a product and continues while it is being developed and after it becomes available.

5.2 STEPS IN MARKETING PROCESS

The marketing process consists of analyzing market opportunities, researching and selecting target markets, designing marketing strategies, planning marketing programs, and organizing, implementing, and controlling the marketing effort. The four steps in the marketing process are:

(a). Analyzing market opportunities. The marketer's initial task is to identify potential long-run opportunities given the company's market experience

and core competencies. To evaluate its various opportunities, assess buyer wants and needs, and gauge market size, the firm needs a marketing research and information system. Next, the firm studies consumer markets or business markets to find out about buying behavior, perceptions, wants, and needs. Smart firms also pay close attention to competitors and look for major segments within each market that they can profitably serve.

(b). Developing marketing strategies. In this step, the marketer prepares a *positioning* strategy for each new and existing product's progress through the life cycle, makes decisions about product lines and branding, and designs and markets its services.

(c). Planning marketing programs. To transform marketing strategy into marketing programs, marketing managers must make basic decisions on marketing expenditures, marketing mix, and marketing allocation. The first decision is about the level of marketing expenditures needed to achieve the firm's marketing objectives. The second decision is how to divide the total marketing budget among the various tools in the marketing mix: product, price, place, and promotion. And the third decision is how to allocate the marketing budget to the various products, channels, promotion media, and sales areas.

(d). Managing the marketing effort. In this step marketers organize firm's marketing resources to implement and control the marketing plan. Because of surprises and disappointments as marketing plans are implemented, the company also needs feedback and control (Philip, 2002).

5.2.1 Internal Marketing

To foster teamwork among all departments, company must carry out internal marketing as well as external marketing. External marketing is marketing directed at people outside the company. Internal marketing is the task of hiring, training, and motivating able employees who want to serve customers well. In fact, internal marketing must precede external marketing. It makes no sense to promise excellent service before the company's staff is ready to provide it (Philip, 2002).

5.2.2 Marketing Audit

A marketing audit draws on feedback from the service community, library staff, and governing boards. Looking at what worked and why, what did not work and why, how the environment and community base has or has not changed, and what changes have taken place within the organization (staff, services, resources facilities) all become important aspects in adjusting and maintaining a viable marketing program. Other elements include assessing the resources available to carry out the program, how well the people responsible for carrying out the program have performed, and how effective the program is in achieving long-term organizational mission goals and objectives (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Additional issues for an audit involve how certain factors have or have not changed since the program's inception. For instance, if the time frame is five years, staff members probably will have changed. Another factor is that small variations in organizational resources over the years may, in totality, be significant. A careful review of the operating environment may reveal that new or different competitors exist for the library. In essence, one should examine all relevant changes, both internal and external. Such an analysis often helps to increase library usage (quantitatively or qualitatively), to increase attendance at important events, or to build a following for a valued program. The problem is that managers may be tempted to initiate promotional efforts on an adhoc basis to meet a particular need independent of larger or competing priorities. If such efforts succeed, they may become annual activities; the cumulative effect is a hodgepodge of disparate marketing efforts, which can consume massive amounts of time and energy but in total bear little resemblance to the strategic agenda of the institution as a whole (Evans & Alire, 2013).

5.2.3 Branding

Branding is perhaps the most enigmatic component of marketing. What branding really boils down to is the distinction between items. How is product 'A' different from product 'B'? Brand is what separates luxury from middle of the line from generic. The brand messaging is a strategy that asserts a unique characteristic of a product. This claim or promise as it is typically referred to be based on a distinguishing attribute such as price, prestige, authenticity, exclusivity, convenience, ease of use, speed, special features, reliability, or quality.

First thing, you can't control your brand. You can shape it, push it, adjust it, or influence it, but you don't own it. Your brand lives in the minds of the users; it is your reputation. While we can make claims and offer evidence of what we stand for, it is ultimately up to users to decide the significance of a library. Another way of thinking about brand is to consider all the mental associations that get stirred up when you hear or think about a particular product or company. Take Disney for example: whether it is the movies, the television channel, or the amusement parks, their overarching theme is family-oriented entertainment. This is their brand concept; it's who they are and what they stand for, and their products live up to the hype (Mathews, 2009).

As we plan to apply this strategy to our libraries, it is important to note the difference between the brand (the philosophical concept of who we are and what we offer) and the branding (the visual representation of our services). Brand represents the idea, while branding is the recognizable image. Another way to put it, the brand is a descriptive noun (the premier sports equipment and apparel company in the world), and branding is a graphical and textual translation of this concept (Tiger Woods, the Nike swoosh, and "Just do it!"). Branding is what makes the product identifiable: the name, symbol, tagline, or design. Branding is our

opportunity to embrace one of the classic adages of marketing: find a niche and fill it. We want the library to be the first thing that comes to mind when students encounter particular academic needs (Mathews, 2009).

5.2.4 Promotion

Promotion refers to a cluster of techniques to communicate, inform, persuade, stimulate, and remind the service community of the merits of the services and programs available. The goal of promotion is to modify or reinforce existing behavior. The successful approach will blend selective activities to reach and recruit potential users. Looking at libraries as if they were a company, sales promotion can consist of discounts (such as volume discounts on copying), coupons, samples (e.g., limited free access to a fee-based service), toll-free numbers, films/videos (self-paced bibliographic instruction), catalogs and guides, decals, calendars, and other tactics normally used in the commercial world. Public libraries can and do make use of decals and posters prepared by state or national professional associations as well as locally developed items (Evans & Alire, 2013). There are additional options to consider when building your marketing mix. Certainly the library's webpages are a powerful tool. They not only convey basic information about the services offered but also reflect the library's image and culture. The library may have a free-standing website, or it may have pages within the website of the parent organization. Naturally you must carefully consider what to cover (putting too much information on a page is as bad as having too little). Think about such issues as page indexing, links to other relevant sites, design, and layout—users should be able to navigate the site quickly to find the information they are seeking". Remember that the information provided needs to be updated regularly—a site that is not updated gives a very bad impression of the library. Pictures, video, and sound can enhance the site, but they can be expensive, and they can cause frustration for the visitor with a low-end computer. Maintain a balance between ease and speed of access and the use of such enhancements as images and sound (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Preprinted advertising inserts and circulars can be used to publish service offerings, schedules, or a calendar of events. A library can have these inserted into weekly community newspapers or mailed to home and work addresses. Some libraries have a weekly column in the local newspaper. Canvassing is the marketing category for a technique better known in public libraries as "outreach activities." If used discriminatingly-choosing events and locations where real prospects are likely to be concentrated-this tactic has its place in most strategies. If overused, it will drain resources from more cost-efficient alternatives (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Brochures can be a keystone element in a well-orchestrated sequence of varied communications efforts—if they are written, designed, and distributed at the right time in the cycle and if they are aimed at carefully targeted populations.

Billboards and print advertising are mass-media options that typically are expensive choices for trying to reach thousands of nonusers. On occasion, however, these tactics can lend key support. For example, such options are an appropriate means to promote a special event by identifying the time, the place, and the specific benefit to the target population (Evans & Alire, 2013).

5.2.5 Public Relations

Public relations (PR) and publicity are communications for which the sponsoring organization does not pay. PR normally takes the form of an article in a magazine or newspaper or in any other form of non-personal news distribution. Often companies employ PR firms or agencies to make sure that articles and other news favorable to the company are placed in media to which a variety of constituents are exposed (e.g., customers, stockholders, legislators).

The main advantage of PR is that it comes from a supposedly unbiased source. Therefore, it has more credibility than advertising, which everyone knows is intended to promote the product or service. In addition, other than the cost of the PR agency, it is inexpensive. PR campaigns are often used by pharmaceutical companies to raise public awareness of certain disorders, such as social anxiety disorder, an extreme form of shyness in social situations.

The problem with PR is that the sponsoring company has little control over it. You cannot control the placement of the item in a publication, what is said about you, or any other aspect of PR. In addition, PR can be negative. If your company is accused of sexual discrimination in hiring and promotion practices, this is likely to damage your reputation. In these cases, PR firms usually attempt to diminish the problem by taking damage control measures, such as releasing favorable information about the company (Russel & Dhar, 2013).

5.2.6 Advocacy

Advocacy is in general about supporting a cause or course of action, library advocacy process must become an integral part of a manager's responsibilities. It needs to be more than a recognized part of the marketing and promotion processes; it needs to be a "must-do" for all library administrators. To become a successful library administrator, it is critical to developing advocacy skills. It is critically important that library administrators' jobs are to rally and organize library advocates to speak out for their libraries because they are the ones who lose when libraries are cut or closed. Because of the ever-increasing financial strain on public-supported organizations and agencies, now more than ever library advocacy is critical. In the past, advocacy efforts were focused on the stakeholders—community users, students, and faculty. These grassroots efforts have been effective when applied systematically. Engaging library employees—librarians and support staff—to become frontline advocates has added another layer of personal

involvement. Who better than the frontline staff to influence users whom they see regularly and probably know on a first-name basis (Evans & Alire, 2013).

5.3 MOTIVATING

Motivation refers to the process in which a person's efforts are energized, directed, and sustained for attaining goals. The energy element is a measure of intensity, drive, and vigor. A motivated person puts forth effort and works hard. However, the quality of the effort must be considered as well as its intensity. High levels of effort don't necessarily lead to favorable job performance unless the effort is channeled in a direction that benefits the organization. Effort that's directed toward, and consistent with, organizational goals is the kind of effort we want from employees. Finally, motivation includes a persistence dimension. We want employees to persist in putting forth effort to achieve those goals (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

5.3.1 Performance and Motivation

Motivation is a key element in work performance, from the most senior manager to the newest hire. People often think motivation is about top management motivating workers. That is certainly true; however, senior staff's motivation will impact the rest of the staff. No amount of effort on the part of an unmotivated manager to motivate his or her staff will produce much in the way of positive results (Evans & Alire, 2013).

5.3.2 Motivation Behaviour

Evans and Alire (2013) explained that motivation has its roots in the personal beliefs, attitudes, and experiences that induce a particular behavior pattern in a person. Motives arise partly from physiologically based needs (hunger, thirst, sleep, etc.) that cause a person to seek to satisfy these needs. In 1943, Abraham Maslow, a founder of content theory, published a paper on the hierarchy of needs. Beyond the basic behaviors related to survival, satisfying thirst and hunger and having shelter-are behaviors that result from learned or conditioned behavior, environmental circumstances, and life experiences. Even the methods for "acceptably" satisfying the basic needs result from social and cultural conditioning. Culturally based conditioning can result in some values that are diametrically opposed to certain types of work environments (e.g., competitive, team, or individual). Consider work teams having members from different cultures and generations: in a diverse society motives can, and will, differ. It follows that managers should not expect that all the staff members will share the same motives for performing their work.

Motives and needs are internal; goals are external. Goals (incentives) are the rewards the individual expects to receive as a result of his or her activities. Many managers are successful in providing incentives to motivate their staff but must avoid making an incentive the focus. Incentives can be tangible (e.g., pay increases, better working conditions, or new staff facilities) or intangible (e.g., praise, empathy, or recognition of achievement in front of peers). Each employee will respond to combinations of incentives. Expectancy affects motives and needs; availability affects the perception of goals and incentives. Expectancy arises from a person's experience and perceived probability of satisfying the need; availability is the person's assessment of how accessible certain goals and incentives actually are. People act on their needs according to their perceptions of the world around them—in a sense, a personal worldview. Managers should always remain aware that their worldview may differ substantially from those of their staff and peers. Similar actions do not necessarily reflect similar desires or wants. For example, a person might agree to take responsibility for the library's young adult blog as an added duty. This may be motivated by a desire to interact more directly with young people, an interest in social media in general, a belief that this is an opportunity to learn new skills or demonstrate existing skills that could lead to advancement, or a host of other reasons (Evans & Alire, 2013).

5.3.3 Motivation Theories

Motivation theories fall into three broad categories: content, process, and reinforcement:

(a). Content theories provide methods for profiling or analyzing staff in terms of needs.

(b). Process theories provide insights into how people think about, and give meaning to, organizational rewards.

(c). Reinforcement theories provide guidance about the way that people learn patterns of behavior when that behavior is the result of environmental (workplace) reinforcements.

These theories and the research upon which the theories rest are complementary rather than contradictory. The following sections examine the different categories of theories in more detail (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Content theories

The best-known theory of motivation is probably Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Maslow was a psychologist who proposed that within every person is a hierarchy of five needs:

(a). Physiological needs: A person's needs for food, drink, shelter, sex, and other physical requirements.

(b). Safety needs: A person's needs for security and protection from physical and emotional harm, as well as assurance that physical needs will continue to be met.

(c). Social needs: A person's needs for affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship.

(d). Esteem needs: A person's needs for internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention.

(e). Self-actualization needs: A person's needs for growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfillment; the drive to become what one is capable of becoming**.**

Maslow argued that each level in the needs hierarchy must be substantially satisfied before the next need becomes dominant. An individual moves up the needs hierarchy from one level to the next. In addition, Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower levels. Physiological and safety needs were considered lower-order needs; social, esteem, and self-actualization needs were considered higher-order needs. Lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally while higher-order needs are satisfied internally. How does Maslow's theory explain motivation? Managers using Maslow's hierarchy to motivate employees do things to satisfy employees' needs. But the theory also says that once a need is substantially satisfied, an individual is no longer motivated to satisfy that need. Therefore, to motivate someone, you need to understand what need level that person is on in the hierarchy and focus on satisfying needs at or above that level (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Process theories

Process theories examine the ways people think about work and which goals motivate them to perform to their maximum potential. Needs are just one of several factors that come together to generate work behavior. One aspect of process theories is the idea that people anticipate what is likely to occur given a particular behavior pattern (expectancy). One example is that while meeting deadlines is a normal part of the work environment, sometimes a manager must shorten the time frame for accomplishing an activity. Most employees would anticipate that, if they meet the changed deadline, the manager will at least praise them for a job well done, if not provide a more tangible reward. There may also be some expectancy on the part of the manager that comes into play, as we shall soon see in McGregor's theory (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Douglas McGregor is best known for proposing two assumptions about human nature: Theory X is negative view of people which assumes that workers have little ambition,

dislike work, want to avoid responsibility, and need to be closely controlled to work effectively. Theory Y is a positive view that assumes employees enjoy work, seek out and accept responsibility, and exercise self-direction. McGregor believed that Theory Y assumptions should guide management practice and proposed that participation in decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations would maximize employee motivation. Unfortunately, no evidence confirms that either set of assumptions is valid or that being a Theory Y manager is the only way to motivate employees (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory (also called motivation-hygiene theory) proposes that intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with job dissatisfaction. They interviewed engineers and accountants concerning the good or bad points about their jobs. They found that positive thoughts were highest when managers indicated to the employees they were doing a good job or when they were considered to be an expert in their job or field. Fringe benefits did not produce positive feelings, as benefits generally produced negative thoughts when employees viewed them as inadequate. The same was true of salary. Negative thoughts and feelings resulted from the physiological and security aspects of the job; positive thoughts resulted from self-actualization, self-esteem, and social needs. Job attitudes directly affect the quality of work. When people have a positive attitude toward their jobs, they use more creativity, are more careful, and try harder to achieve excellence. When they are unhappy, they are most likely to perform at the minimum acceptable level (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Herzberg (1959) proposed two sets of stimuli that produce job satisfaction or dissatisfaction: motivators and hygienic (environmental) factors. Motivators produced improvement in performance and attitudes. Hygienic factors merely maintained morale and efficiency. For the interviewees, motivators were chances to become more expert and to handle more demanding assignments. These conclusions are compatible with Maslow's hierarchy in that the hygienic (environmental) factors and the motivators (the job itself) concern the various levels in the hierarchy. Esteem needs are more complex. Recognition is an earned personal quality, whereas status usually is a function of the job itself. Consequently, status is a self-esteem need, whereas recognition is a motivator. Prior to Herzberg's work, managers placed an emphasis on the concept of job enlargement, that is, increasing the number of tasks an individual performs. Herzberg suggested that doing a little of this and a little of that was no way to motivate people because variety of this sort does not alleviate boredom. He proposed job enrichment: a deliberate upgrading of the scope, challenge, and responsibility of a person's work. Applying this concept in libraries could prove useful, as Herzberg identified (his critics notwithstanding) the key workplace motivator is the job itself (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Reinforcement theories

Reinforcement theory says that behavior is a function of its consequences. Those consequences that immediately follow a behavior and increase the probability that the behavior will be repeated are called reinforcers. Reinforcement theory ignores factors such as goals, expectations, and needs. Instead, it focuses solely on what happens to a person when he or she does something. Using reinforcement theory, managers can influence employees' behavior by using positive reinforcers for actions that help the organization achieve its goals. And managers should ignore, not punish, undesirable behavior. Although punishment eliminates undesired behavior faster than non-reinforcement does, its effect is often temporary and may have unpleasant side effects including dysfunctional behavior such as workplace conflicts, absenteeism, and turnover (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

5.3.4 Motivating Teams

Most of you are probably familiar with teams especially if you have watched or participated in organized sports events. Work teams differ from work groups and have their own unique traits. Work groups interact primarily to share information and to make decisions to help each member do his or her job more efficiently and effectively. There's no need or opportunity for work groups to engage in collective work that requires joint effort. On the other hand, work teams are groups whose members work intensely on a specific, common goal using their positive synergy, individual and mutual accountability, and complementary skills (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

There are other good reasons for the increase in teamwork: involving people who would be affected by decisions more readily achieves acceptance and implementation; as tasks become more complex, expertise can be brought into the group; and, when creating ideas or needing to retain information and experience, a group shares and retains that knowledge. So an emphasis is now placed on valuing a smaller staff working in teams, where self-motivation is important. Scholars have identified multiple intrinsic and extrinsic factors that could contribute to motivating team in organization e.g. social rewards and sanctions, social dilemmas or disagreements within a team; social loafing or freeloading, individual identity, desire to achieve, member role differences, team size, status attainment, and member commitment (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Virtual teams are increasingly part of a workplace, particularly in libraries that operate over extended hours, have staff working across an organization or off-site or off-shore, and have flexible hours. They communicate by telephone or video conferences, webcams, and simple group e-mails. Their challenges may be greater than a team working regular hours in one location, particularly if they do not have the opportunity to meet socially at regular intervals. To work effectively, the virtual team needs well-developed communication skills, especially if they are working across cultures (Evans & Alire, 2013).

5.3.5 Public Service Motivation

An area of motivation research that has received little attention by librarians and the profession is public service motivation. The vast majority of employee motivation research was and is conducted in the for-profit sector; a small percentage has focused on nonprofit organizations and even less specifically on libraries (Evans & Alire, 2013).

5.4 ACTIVITIES

1. What unique challenges to creating a marketing program does your library face? Why do you need to market your library? Are there any services or programs your library offers that could benefit from marketing? How can these challenges be overcome?

2. How can we use the marketing mix from a university library perspective?

3. Salary can be a powerful motivator. Managers should treat employees equitably and provide recognition and rewards for superior achievement. Explain how?

4. Consider how you could apply the three motivation models presented in this unit to your associates. Which one(s) do you consider most relevant for your unit? How can you positively impact your associates' motivation and degree of job satisfaction over the next few months?

5.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Why marketing is important in service-oriented organizations?
2. What measures should take library professionals to market libraries services?
3. How branding can be linked with libraries?
4. What are key internal and external marketing issues?
5. Explain why motivation is important in the workplace?

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Unit–6

(A) LEADING AND BUILDING TEAMS
(B) ADDRESSING DIVERSITY

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

A leader is someone who can influence others and who has managerial authority (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Leaders do not just lead by giving orders. They also serve as an example to other members of an organization. A leader has to be not only committed to an organization but also to be seen to be committed; if the leader's actions and words do not match, then other members of staff will begin to have doubts. 'Do as I say, not as I do' is never a credible maxim for a leader. 'Follow me and work with me' is more likely to produce the desired effect. A popular metaphor for business leadership is the relationship between an orchestra conductor and his or her players. The conductor does not tell the players what to do; they already know how to play their instruments, possibly better than the conductor does. Instead, the conductor provides a kind of guide and reference point to which the players can look, indicating tempo and changes. Good conductors do not lead the orchestra, they carry it with them (Witzel, 2004). Specifically, this unit describes leadership, approaches to leadership, and developing leadership skills. Moreover, teams building and the value of teams for a library are discussed. Finally, diversity, managerial responsibility towards diversity, and individual responsibility towards diversity are introduced. This unit concludes with several activities and self-assessment questions.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you would be able to:

- what is leadership
- approaches to leadership
- developing leadership skills
- teams and value of teams for a library
- building and supporting teams
- common pitfalls in team usage
- role of negotiation in teamwork
- diversity
- managerial responsibility towards diversity
- individual responsibility towards diversity

6.1 LEADERSHIP

Leadership is what leaders do. It is a process of leading a group and influencing that group to achieve its goals (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Leadership is about convincing people that there is an organizational direction (vision) that is exciting, realistic, and doable. It is about inspiring people and getting them committed to organization. It is about giving them confidence so that they can achieve the organizational goals and coaching and mentoring them in their career development activities (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.1.1 Approaches to Leadership

The literature of leadership, in general, is extensive and ranges from research-based theories to gurus' philosophies. All have value in understanding what it takes to become a leader (Evans & Alire, 2013). Leadership research in the 1920s and 1930s focused on isolating leader traits that are, characteristics that would differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

The trait approach was followed by most writers from the early twentieth century until the late 1950s. It assumes that a person is born either a leader or a follower. However, as is the case with so many other personality trait studies (of the creative person, the successful writer, or the famous singer), the list of traits became very long, general in character, and sometimes contradictory (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Researchers eventually recognized that traits alone were not sufficient for identifying effective leaders since explanations based solely on traits ignored the interactions of leaders and their group members as well as situational factors. Possessing the appropriate traits only made it more likely that an individual would be an effective leader. Therefore, leadership research from the late 1940s to the mid-1960s concentrated on the preferred behavioral styles that leaders demonstrated. Researchers wondered whether something unique in what effective leaders did-in other words, in their behavior—was the key. Researchers hoped that the behavioral theories approach would provide more definitive answers about the nature of leadership than did the trait theories. The four main leader behavior studies are summarized as below.

The University of Iowa studies explored three leadership style, i.e. autocratic style, democratic style and laissez-faire style. The researchers' results seemed to indicate that the democratic style contributed to both good quantity and quality of work (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Researchers at Ohio State University (Fleishman, 1953) developed questionnaires that subordinates used to describe the behaviour of their supervisor, and identified two dimensions 'initiating structure' and 'consideration'. Surveys showed that supervisors displayed distinctive patterns, some scored high on initiating structure and low on consideration, while others scored the reverse. Some were high on both, others low on both. Research into the effects on performance concluded that consideration was more strongly related to follower satisfaction, while initiating structure was slightly more related to leader performance (Boddy, 2016).

Leadership studies conducted at the University of Michigan at about the same time as those being done at Ohio State also hoped to identify behavioral characteristics of leaders that were related to performance effectiveness. The Michigan group also came up with two dimensions of leadership behavior, which they labeled employee oriented and production oriented. Leaders who were employee oriented were described as emphasizing interpersonal relationships. The production-oriented leaders, in contrast, tended to emphasize the task aspects of the job. Unlike the other studies, the Michigan researchers concluded that leaders who were employee oriented were able to get high group productivity and high group member satisfaction (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

The behavioral dimensions from these early leadership studies provided the basis for the development of a two-dimensional grid for appraising leadership styles. This managerial grid used the behavioral dimensions "concern for people" (the vertical part of the grid) and "concern for production" (the horizontal part of the grid) and evaluated a leader's use of these behaviors, ranking them on a scale from 1 (low). Unfortunately, the grid offered no answers to the question of what made a manager an effective leader; it only provided a framework for conceptualizing leadership style. In fact, little substantive evidence supports the conclusion that a style is most effective in all situations (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

In the 1960s, the focus shifted from personality traits and behavior to the environment in which leadership exists-the situational approach. Researchers began to study such factors as the interactions between the manager (leader) and the staff (followers), the organization's needs at any given time, the type of work that the organization performs, and/or the group's values, ethics, experiences, and so forth. Both experience and research studies indicate that the operating environment is an important factor in the success or failure of a leader, but it is not the sole issue (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Leadership researchers were discovering that predicting leadership success involved something more complex than isolating a few leader traits or preferable behaviors. They began looking at situational influences (Robbins & Coulter, 2017;

Boddy, 2016). Later Situational models were presented with the idea that managers influence others by adapting their style to the circumstances (Boddy, 2016).

One of the famous model was presented by Fred Fiedler in 1978, the Fiedler contingency model proposed that effective group performance depended upon properly matching the leader's style and the amount of control and influence in the situation. The model was based on the premise that a certain leadership style would be most effective in different types of situations. The keys were to (1) define those leadership styles and the different types of situations, and then (2) identify the appropriate combinations of style and situation. Fiedler proposed that a key factor in leadership success was an individual's basic leadership style, either task oriented or relationship oriented (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Fiedler's model attempted to define the best style to use in particular situations. He measured leader style is relationship oriented or task oriented by using the least-preferred coworker questionnaire. Fiedler also assumed a leader's style was fixed. He measured three contingency dimensions: leader–member relations, task structure, and position power. The model suggests that task-oriented leaders performed best in very favorable and very unfavorable situations, and relationship-oriented leaders performed best in moderately favorable situations (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory focused on followers' readiness. They identified four leadership styles: telling (high task–low relationship), selling (high task–high relationship), participating (low task–high relationship), and delegating (low task–low relationship). They also identified four stages of readiness: unable and unwilling (use telling style), unable but willing (use selling style), able but unwilling (use participative style), and able and willing (use delegating style) (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

The path-goal model developed by Robert House identified four leadership behaviors: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented. He assumed that a leader can and should be able to use any of these styles. The two situational contingency variables were found in the environment and the follower. Essentially the path-goal model says that a leader should provide direction and support as needed; that is, structure the path so the followers can achieve goals (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

The contemporary view of leadership focuses on the member exchange theory, transformational-transactional leadership, visionary leadership, and team leadership. The Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) says that leaders create

in-groups and out- groups and those in the in-group will have higher performance ratings, less turnover, and greater job satisfaction (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Many early leadership theories viewed leaders as transactional leaders; that is, leaders that lead primarily by using social exchanges (or transactions). A transactional leader exchanges rewards for productivity where a transformational leader stimulates and inspires followers to achieve goals. A charismatic leader is an enthusiastic and self-confident leader whose personality and actions influence people to behave in certain ways. People can learn to be charismatic. A visionary leader is able to create and articulate a realistic, credible, and attractive vision of the future. A team leader has two priorities: manage the team's external boundary and facilitate the team process. Four leader roles are involved: liaison with external constituencies, troubleshooter, conflict manager, and coach (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

6.1.2 Functions of Leadership

So what do leaders do? The most important function is to drive the library forward and manage change, so the leader develops the vision for a library. The vision sets direction for the library, enthusing and motivating staff. To achieve this, a leader needs to understand top management's thinking (both internal and external to the library), the emerging needs of the community served, and what is happening in the outside world (scanning). Using this information, the leader works with her or his team to anticipate changes, develop new ideas, and propose adjustments in the group's activities. The leader is a planner, working with the staff to turn the vision into reality and prepare concrete plans that can be implemented. These form the benchmarks or targets against which managers monitor performance, feeding the resulting data and information back into the planning process (Evans & Alire, 2013).

A leader is more effective if she or he is an expert in the field in which she or he operates. Being an expert facilitates communication, because a common language will be used with senior management and team; and the leader is able to use the full capabilities of the parent organization and resources within the profession. A leader shares knowledge and skills willingly and in a manner suggesting an equal relationship, not a superior-subordinate relationship. This is the area that causes challenges for a leader recruited from outside the information sector. Library managers and leaders are the library's spokespeople to outsiders. Although other people may be capable of assuming this role, the staff "know" that the leader will not only present the library's position but also do everything possible to protect their interests (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.1.3 Developing Leadership Skills

Leaders keep up-to-date with changes in approaches to management and leadership issues, and, of course, information and communications technologies. By maintaining currency in professional practice and issues, leaders help staff with their informal learning. Evans & Alire, 2013). Table 6.2 below shows the characteristics of leaders compared with managers.

Table 6.2 Characteristics of leaders compared to managers

Manager	**Leader**
Administers	Innovates
Is a copy	Is original
Maintains	Develops
Accept reality	Investigate reality
Systems/structure focus	People focus
Relies on control	Inspires trust
Short term view	Long-range view
Ask how and when	Asks what and why
Eye on the bottom line	Eye on the horizon
Imitates	Originates
Accept status quo	Challenges status quo
Classic good soldier	Own person
Does things right	Does the right thing

Source: Evans & Alire (2013)

6.1.4 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI or EQ) has been defined as the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought. Emotional intelligence is the ability to monitor your and others' feelings and to use this information to guide your thinking and actions. The trait of emotional intelligence was first introduced in 1909 (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011).

6.1.5 One-on-One Learning

One-on-one learning can take several forms. Among them most of the common are coaching, mentoring, and modeling. Coaching, mentoring, and modeling are interrelated to some degree. A coach is often modeling while engaged in coaching and thus has an influence beyond the one-on-one coaching activity. A mentor can be, and often is, both a model and a coach.

Modeling is not directed at a particular individual but rather demonstrates a behavior, value, and so forth that others can copy. Nevertheless, only a person who

is trusted or respected is likely to have her or his actions and values modeled by others (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.1.6 Gender Differences and Leadership

"As women moved into higher level managerial positions, the number of studies of the relationship between leadership and gender also increased. This is of interest to librarians because an increasing number of women occupy leadership positions. At one time the literature of management indicated that decisions were said to be made in men's locker rooms, but, given the rising numbers of women in senior positions, especially in the civil service and the public sector, more decisions are made today in the women's restrooms (Evans & Alire, 2013).

The studies have found that there is slight difference as perceived by the follower in women and men leadership. Woman supervisor perceived greater interpersonal aspects in their work they follow democratic and participative and transformational leadership styles. While men leader focuses on structure in their work (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.1.7 E-Leadership

Having the information technology shadowed the old life style, a major change can be noticed in the way people work or are required to work. In the working environment where one do not get to see their employees or team members daily or not at all, it requires different approaches, different strategies and different methods to interact with them. The similar changes in turn, of course reflects in their behaviour, their thinking, their efficiency, their performance, their motivation, their satisfaction. All these changes also impact the leadership process within organizations. The key difference between leadership and e-leadership takes place in a context where work is mediated by information technology. In such context, not only the communication between leader and followers takes places via information technology but also collection and dissemination of information required to support organizational work also takes place via information technology (Bansal, 2010).

E-leadership involves leader interactions with others via the Internet and other forms of advanced information technology, which have made possible new ways for interacting within and between organizations (e-business) and with customers and suppliers (e-commerce). E-leadership can involve one-to-one, one-to-many, within-group and between-group, and collective interactions via information technology (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011).

6.2 BUILDING TEAMS

Workplace teams are not exactly "new" despite what the current literature might lead you to believe. Libraries did, do, and will continue to succeed only when the entire staff functions as a single team (sharing common goals, linking of work activities, and understanding the "big picture, for example). Successful departments have always been the ones that function as sub-teams of the whole team. Teams have been with us for a long time in one form or another (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.2.2 Team Concept

A team is defined as a small group of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approaches for which they held responsible themselves (Kinicki, Williams, Scott-Ladd, & Perry, 2011).
Team can be of different types. Teams first became popular, most were problem-solving teams, which are teams from the same department or functional area involved in efforts to improve work activities or to solve specific problems. Members share ideas or offer suggestions on how work processes and methods can be improved. However, these teams are rarely given the authority to implement any of their suggested actions. Although problem-solving teams were helpful, they didn't go far enough in getting employees involved in work-related decisions and processes. This shortcoming led to another type of team, a self-managed work team, which is a formal group of employees who operate without a manager and are responsible for a complete work process or segment. A self-managed team is responsible for getting the work done and for managing themselves, which usually includes planning and scheduling of work, assigning tasks to members, collective control over the pace of work, making operating decisions, and taking action on problems. The third type of team is the cross-functional team, it is a work team composed of individuals from various functional specialties. The final type of team is the virtual team, which is a team that uses technology to link physically dispersed members in order to achieve a common goal (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

6.2.2 Before you Start Team Building

Teams require thoughtful leadership and support in order to realize all their benefits. Thus, implementing teams does not reduce an organization's need for leaders/managers. What follows are some thoughts for making teams a key component of library operations.

Deciding to employ teams, temporary or permanent, it is not to be done lightly. Teams and time go together like bacon and eggs. They require thoughtful planning, a careful assessment of staff capabilities, and an assessment of the organization's ability to adjust to the team concept before you start. Teams require careful,

ongoing nurturing from their creation to their disbandment. They also require a different and rather complex assessment process to ensure sound and proper accountability.

Time spent in preparing and thinking about creating teams will pay off in better long-term performance. You should think through some basic issues that fall into three broad areas—organizational, team, and team membership. Taken together, the assessment indicates how ready the organization is to implementing true teams (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.2.3 Creating and Maintaining Teams

Putting people into a team does not mean they perform well immediately, as teams need to learn to work together. Some never perform well. Multiple steps are involved in the creation teams (Boddy, 2016). Researchers have identified following characteristics of an effective team:

(a). Clear goals: High-performance teams have a clear understanding of the goal to be achieved. Members are committed to the team's goals, know what they're expected to accomplish, and understand how they will work together to achieve these goals.

(b). Relevant skills: Effective teams are composed of competent individuals who have necessary technical and interpersonal skills to achieve desired goals while working well together. This last point is important because not everyone who is technically competent has the interpersonal skills to work well as a team member.

(c). Mutual trust: Effective teams are characterized by high mutual trust among members. That is, members believe in each other's ability, character, and integrity. But as you probably know from personal relationships, trust is fragile. Maintaining this trust requires careful attention by managers.

(d). Unified commitment: Unified commitment is characterized by dedication to the team's goals and a willingness to expend extraordinary amounts of energy to achieve them. Members of an effective team exhibit intense loyalty and dedication to the team and are willing to do whatever it takes to help their team succeed.

(e). Good communication: Not surprisingly, effective teams are characterized by good communication. Members convey messages, verbally and nonverbally, between each other in ways that are readily and clearly understood. Also, feedback helps guide team members and correct misunderstandings. Like a couple who has been together for many years, members of high-performing teams are able to quickly and efficiently share ideas and feelings.

(f). Negotiating skills: Effective teams are continually making adjustments to whom does what. This flexibility requires team members to possess negotiating skills. Because problems and relationships regularly change within teams, members need to be able to confront and reconcile differences.

Internal and external support: The final condition necessary for an effective team is a supportive climate. Internally, the team should have a sound infrastructure which means proper training, a clear and reasonable measurement system that team members can use to evaluate their overall performance, an incentive program that recognizes and rewards team activities, and a supportive human resource system. The right infrastructure should support members and reinforce behaviors that lead to high levels of performance. Externally, managers should provide the team with the resources needed to get the job done (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Figure 6.1 shows the stages of team development in organization. The process starts from forming team. Forming is the stage at which members choose, or are told, to join a team. Managers may select them for their functional and technical expertise or for some other skill. They come together and begin to find out who the other members are, exchanging fairly superficial information about themselves, and beginning to offer ideas about what the group should do. People are trying to make an impression on the group and to establish their identity with other members. As the group begins the actual work members begin to express differences of interest that they withheld, or did not recognize, at the forming stage. People realize that others want different things, have other priorities and, perhaps, have hidden agendas. Different personalities emerge, with contrasting attitudes towards the group and how it should work. Some experience conflicts between their time with the group and other duties. Differences in values and norms emerge. If the group does not confront disagreements it will remain at the forming or storming stage and do no significant work. As team develops, the members begin to accommodate differences and establish adequate ways of working together. They develop norms – expected ways to behave – about how they should interact, handle the task, deal with differences. People create or clarify roles and responsibilities. They may establish a common language to allow members to work effectively for the achievement of their goals. Finally, the team completes its task and disbands. Members may reflect on how the group performed and identify lessons for future tasks. Some groups disband because they are clearly not able to do the job, and agree to stop meeting (Boddy, 2016).

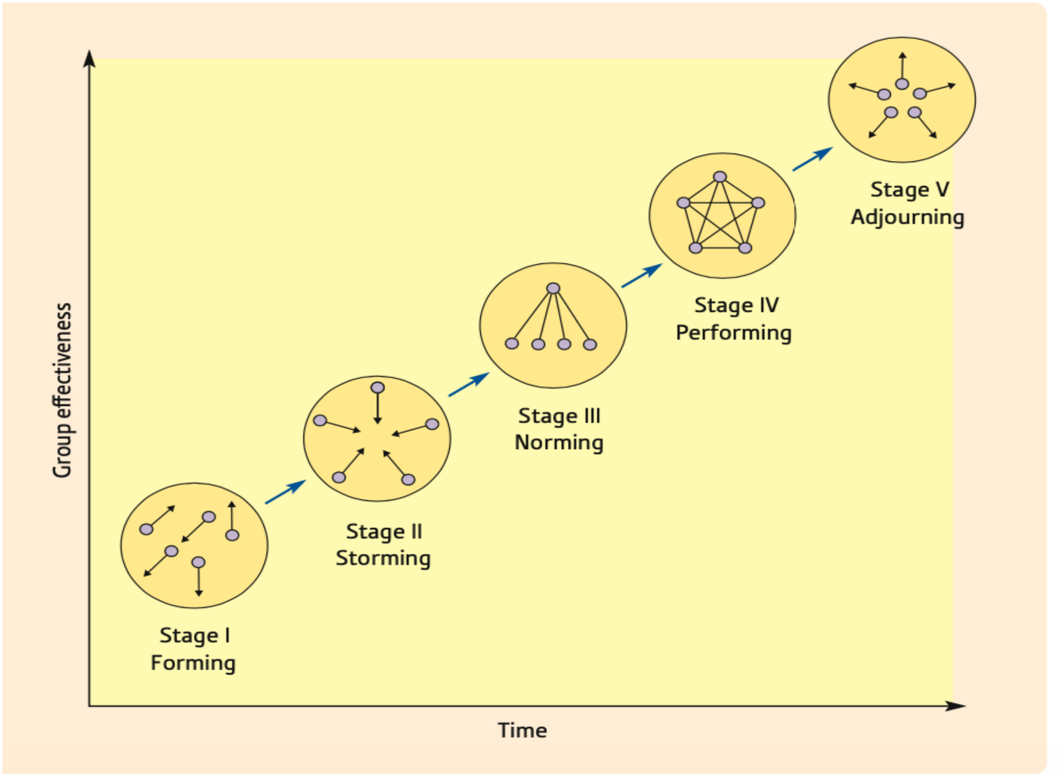

Figure 6.1: Stages of team development (Boddy, 2016)

6.2.4 Team-Based Libraries

Libraries currently do make some use of teams, and it seems highly likely the usage will increase over time. However, there are not a significant number of libraries where teams are the primary organizational pattern. Some academic libraries tried the approach and have ceased the practice; one such example is the University of Maryland Libraries. Most of the libraries employ teams in a few key areas (such as technical services) rather than as the only organizational structure. Perhaps one of the best-known team-based libraries with the longest operational experience in the United States is the University of Arizona Library. It has received a substantial amount of publicity since its first foray into becoming a team-based organization in the early 1990s (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.3 ADDRESSING DIVERSITY

Almost every aspect of library operations carries with it the potential for raising a diversity issue. Library managerial leaders face challenging situations where strong community differences exist, and diversity is one such issue. There are times when the divide is between the majority community values and professional values.

Decision-making in such situations is difficult. We believe there are good reasons for engaging in activities that support diversity:

(a). First, there is a very human reason that it affects everyone who interacts with the library, the staff, and the service community. Everyone has a need to achieve their individual goals. For staff, the goals may relate to their career or personal life. For the users, they need to gain the greatest possible benefit from the service.

(b). Second, it makes good sense to create a collegial environment in which people are viewed as individuals. This encourages staff to become members of a team, and users are welcomed as valued members of the community. It optimizes both the potential of individuals and their productivity.

(c). Third, diversity is a factor in attracting and retaining the best talent among the staff. Staff turnover carries both visible and invisible costs.

(d). Fourth, when staff members know they are valued and take pride in the quality of their work, it influences how they interact with the community, which, in turn, increases the comfort level of users and raises the overall performance of the service. As business discovered, investing in good practice brings benefits for everyone and makes good sense (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.3.1 Defining Diversity

Diversity has been defined in a number of ways. Some writers and organizations take a narrow view, relating diversity mainly to racial or sexual identification. We believe diversity encompasses far more than these two important areas. It can involve cultural, religious, language, age, disability, and sexual orientation in addition to racial and gender concerns. We also believe generational differences can be a diversity issue (Evans & Alire, 2013). Simply, diversity can be any difference between the members of a group on any given dimension. Diversity can be real, or it can be perceived by the members of the team. Examples of attributes on which teams can be diverse include sex, race, age, personality traits, attitudes, values, religion, skin color, hair color, education, sexual orientation, functional area, and organizational tenure to name a few (Triana, 2017).

6.3.2 Managerial Responsibility

As a managerial leader, your responsibilities concerning diversity are to:

(a). Create an organizational culture that values diversity in all its manifestations;

(b). Ensure that everyone has and demonstrates respect for the views and experiences of others; and,

(c). Implement practices based on sound policies so that diversity brings benefits to the library for both staff members and users.

The key to success is to make flexibility a central component that will both support and retain staff and users. There is a considerable body of legislation related to diversity, such as equal employment opportunity, equal pay, and antidiscrimination. Sometimes, in addition to federal laws, each province has a slightly different approach to such issues. Knowing the details of every change in the laws is not realistic for general managerial leaders. Keeping up-to-date on such matters is the responsibility of human resources and legal staff. It is also their responsibility to advise general managerial leaders of the changes that may impact them (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.3.3 Individual Responsibility

Every staff member has a personal responsibility to recognize and value differing attitudes and patterns of behavior of the people with whom they interact. Earlier we noted that individual values will differ, which creates different expectations when it comes to interactions. Unlike language, some differences are more subtle. For example, attitudes toward time vary; some people are relaxed about time, while others are rigid, which can cause conflicts. The rituals in meeting another person may vary from the warm smile, friendly handshake, and use of first names to great formality and using titles rather than names. If you have lived in a different culture, it helps you to understand the degree of shock that a newcomer colleague or user experiences in a new society. For a newcomer, the challenge lies in identifying and understanding the values of the community. Often these values are not obvious or stated, and the newcomer has much to learn before adaptation takes place (Evans & Alire, 2013).

We mention culture shock because every staff member needs to understand how newcomers and new users feel during the process of acculturation. Everyone can experience frustration, helplessness, and perhaps hostility when faced with a new environment, as they compare the old and familiar life or organization with the new one. Remember that you don't have to move from one geographic location to another—the shock can happen simply in changing jobs (Evans & Alire, 2013).

6.4 ACTIVITIES

1. Write a brief profile of a coach you admire. What are that person's key attributes? What is it about that coach that connects with you?

2. You have to prepare a framework to include diversity both in university library services and staff. Develop a team of five members to complete the assignment.

6.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is leadership? What are various types of leadership? Discuss the role of leadership in developing and offering state-of-the-art services in academic libraries.

2. What do you understand about the concept of ‘team’? Why team work is important in libraries? Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of teams in university libraries.

3. What is diversity? What is library diversity? Why diversity is important for libraries?

4. How does diversity impact library services? What are individuals and managerial responsibilities towards diversity in academic libraries context?

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Unit–7

(A) STAFFING
(B) MANAGING MONEY

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

An organization consists of people, technology, and processes. For smooth functioning and offering stat-of-the-art services, it is essential to recruit skilled and knowledgeable staff in libraries. To manage people and infrastructure, libraries also require a sufficient budget. Thus, BS students should possess knowledge about staffing and budgeting. So, this unit explains the key concepts of staffing, for example, legal concerns in human resource management, determining staffing needs, staffing process, job description, selection criteria, training new employees, and performance appraisal. Moreover, it also discusses budgeting, budget types, formats, fund accounting, income generation, and audits and auditor. Activities and self-assessment questions designed at the end of this unit support self-learning of the students.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you would be able to:

- staffing
- determining staffing needs
- staffing process
- budget
- budget preparation
- budget types
- fund accounting
- audits and auditors
- income generation

7.1 STAFFING

Staffing may be defined as the processes involved in finding, assessing, placing, and evaluating individuals at work. These processes operate through recruiting, selecting, appraising, and promoting individuals. Organizations add breadth and scope to these processes and indicate how important the characteristics of the job and the organization are to the entire staffing process. The nature of the organization not only influences the staffing process itself, but also the kinds of people who will be recruited, selected, and promoted—and these, in turn, have a large effect on what the organization is. This is so because the attributes and behavior of people in an organization have a lot to do with what we think of an organization (Ployhart, Schneider, & Schmitt, 2005).

7.1.1 Legal Concerns in Human Resource Management

There are four primary areas where legal concerns come into play in human resource management. First are the laws related to recruitment and selection. Second are factors related to equal opportunities such as promotions and training. Third, when it comes to retention, are laws and legislation that impact what you can and can't do in terms of compensation and benefits as well as health and safety factors. Fourth, for many public sector libraries, are issues about labor contracts and other aspects of labor relations (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.1.2 Determining Staffing Needs

Spending time to plan staffing needs is something effective managerial leaders do regularly. An unfortunate fact of library managerial life is the major challenge of getting and keeping staff positions. Assessing staffing needs starts with an assessment of existing staff. The purpose of this is to help identify what type and how many staff you will need in the future. Doing an inventory of current staff in terms of years of experience (perhaps grouped into categories of 5, 10, and 15 years of experience), skill sets (linguistic, technical, professional, customer relations), and potential for advancement helps start the process. When it comes to estimating losses, you should consider four factors: retirements (relatively easy to project), promotions, transfers, and terminations (voluntary and non-voluntary). One way to project a number for these factors is to assume past rates will probably continue at the same level in the future (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Unfortunately for many libraries, estimating the number of positions lost (non-replacement) is a significant issue. Budget cuts are a major factor in losing positions; all too often a temporary hiring freeze becomes a permanent reduction in staff. New technologies may result in the loss of one type of position but will add a new type. Changes in service emphasis can cause a reduction in or phasing out of one type of position and an increase in another type. Reorganizations also result in changing skill set needs (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.1.3 Staffing Process

Staffing is an eight-step process starting from defining needs; designing each job; recruiting candidates for positions; selecting the right person; providing sound orientation, training, and development opportunities; giving appropriate assessments of job performance; coaching and furnishing fair discipline when necessary; and handling resignations and terminations (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.1.4 Job Descriptions and Specification

A job description is a written statement describing a job, typically job content, environment, and conditions of employment. A job specification states the minimum qualifications that a person must possess to successfully perform a given job. It identifies the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to do the job effectively. Both the job description and job specification are important documents when managers begin recruiting and selecting (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

7.1.5 Job Selection Criteria and Tools

Selection involves predicting which applicants will be successful if hired. The best-known selection tools include application forms, written and performance-simulation tests, interviews, background investigations, and in some cases, physical exams (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). The detail of the criteria and tools is as follows:

(a). Application forms
- Almost universally used
- Most useful for gathering information
- Can predict job performance but not easy to create one that does

(b). Written tests
- Must be job-related
- Include intelligence, aptitude, ability, personality, and interest tests
- Are popular (e.g., personality tests; aptitude tests)
- Relatively good predictor for supervisory positions

(c). Performance-simulation tests
- Use actual job behaviors
- Work sampling—test applicants on tasks associated with that job; appropriate for routine or standardized work
- Assessment center—simulate jobs; appropriate for evaluating managerial potential

(d). Interviews
- Almost universally used
- Must know what can and cannot be asked
- Can be useful for managerial positions

(e). Background investigations
- Used for verifying application data—a valuable source of information
- Used for verifying reference checks—not a valuable source of information

(f). Physical examinations
- Are for jobs that have certain physical requirements
- Mostly used for insurance purposes

7.1.6 The New Employee

The new hires become newcomers, and their initial entry into the job and organization should be guided by orientation and socialization activities. Orientation and socialization may be concurrent, overlapping activities that occur for the newcomer. Orientation is typically more immediate, while socialization is more long term. It should be remembered that the newcomer is likely entering a situation of uncertainties and unknowns (Heneman, Judge, & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2003).

7.1.7 Before the Employee Arrives

It has been suggested that before an employee actually start his/her work in office, the following measure should be taken:

(a). Notify everyone in your unit that a new person is starting and what the person's job will be; ask the other staff members to welcome the new employee and encourage their support.

(b). Prepare interesting tasks for the employee's first day.

(c). Provide the new employee with a copy of the job description, job performance standards, organization chart, and your department's organization chart.

(d). Enroll the employee in any necessary training programs.

(e). Make sure the employee's work location is available, clean, and organized.

(f). Make sure a copy of the appropriate personnel policy manual or contract is available for the employee.

(g). Have a benefits information package available?

(h). If possible, identify a staff member to act as a peer mentor for the first week.

(i). Put together a list of key people the employee should meet and interview to get a broader understanding of their roles.

(j). Arrange for a building pass, parking pass, and IDs if necessary.

(k). Draft a training plan for the new employee's first few months (Heneman, Judge, & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2003).

7.1.8 First Day on the Job

The first day for the new employee should be a combination of orientation and some training relevant job and time with human resource department to take care of all the new employee paperwork.

Possible events for the first day might include:

(a). Give a warm welcome and discuss the plan for the first day.

(b). Tour the employee's assigned work space.

(c). Explain where restrooms, vending machines, and break areas are located.

(d). Provide required keys.

(e). Arrange to have lunch with the new employee.

(f). Tour the building and immediate area and introduce the new employee to other staff members.

(g). Introduce the new employee to the person you've identified as a peer mentor (if appropriate).

(h). Review the job description.

(i). Review the department's (or office's) organizational chart.

(j). Review your office's policies and procedures involving working hours, telephone, e-mail and Internet use, office organization, office resources, and ethics (Heneman, Judge, & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2003).

7.1.9 Developing and Retaining Staff

For most of today's libraries, the retention of their best people is a concern. The concern is due to hiring freezes and often the loss of a vacant position because of budgetary restraints. Certainly, since 2008 employers have been quick to let staff go. In many ways this has caused some of the best and brightest to think, why should I have any loyalty to the organization if it has none for me? For others, all it takes is a hint of staffing changes, real or imagined, or something else perceived as a threat to get them started looking for other employment. They have experienced or heard of organizations that announce a staff reduction and say to the staff, "we don't need you but fully expect you to give a 100 percent work effort until the day you are terminated." The outcome was what you would expect; performance declined, and people left as fast as possible. With underlying "loyalty" weak at best, having programs that give ample opportunities to grow and develop is an important factor in long-term retention of the best and brightest people. You have two basic training and development areas to consider: specific job-related skills and career development competencies and opportunities (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Libraries today face a rapidly changing technological environment. Keeping staff current with the changes related to their activities is a major challenge, especially in times of "steady state" or declining budgets. Failure to maintain staff skills results in users receiving poorer service, which in turn leads to dissatisfaction with the library. You face a dual technological challenge: acquiring and upgrading the technology and finding training funds (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Sometimes human resource office offers institution wide training that the library finds beneficial: basic supervision, improving writing skills, or communicating with customers. One of the drawbacks to these programs is that, except for the very largest organizations, such programs seldom are available more than once a year and may not cover a topic any library staff need. The major drawback of such programs is that they are very general in order to draw enough participants to make the program successful for the organizers. Professional associations are an excellent source of training

opportunities. Unfortunately, there are very few such organizational opportunities for support staff. The primary reason is that support staff members have few opportunities for paid travel, and their salaries are substantially lower, making it almost impossible for them to pay for such programs on their own. As more educational institutions and professional bodies extend the range of distance education programs, training opportunities will increase. In addition to funding concerns, you face the problem of limited staffing, at least in most libraries. With limited staff, it becomes difficult to have staff out for training programs for any length of time. Some jurisdictions are so shortsighted that they refuse to give time off to attend training programs even when the staff member is willing to pay for the program-shortsighted because in time the libraries become less and less effective (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.1.10 Performance Appraisal

Management theory in the United States holds that performance appraisals are essential to the successful operation of any organization. In theory, it should help the worker to improve performance. There is a substantial list of beliefs about the appraisal process:

(a). Essential to good management.
(b). Natural, normal part of human activity.
(c). Ensures minimum performance at least.
(d). Only valid method for granting or withholding economic benefits.
(e). Means of maintaining control of production/service.
(f). Essential for employee growth and development.
(g). Essential for motivating employees.
(h). Assesses quality/success of orientation and training programs.
(i). Means of objectively assessing an individual’s work-related strengths and weaknesses.
(j). Reflects a continuous analysis of a person’s daily work performance.
(k). Reflects an assessment of total performance, not just assigned duties.
(l). Reflects staff members’ future and potential for advancement.
(m). Essential for planning library personnel needs.
(n). Key to successful counseling of staff members (Evans & Alire, 2013).

This is an impressive list of objectives for a single process, but all writers on management and practitioners know that the process has many land mines. They also know that only sometimes does the actual procedure match the ideal. In reality, the process has two goals that are seldom completely congruent. As you might guess from the list, one goal is administrative in character and the other is behavioral. Administrative goals relate to the employee, while the behavioral goals relate to the actions the employee takes (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Aspects of the administrative goals are highly subjective despite beliefs to the contrary. One aspect in the process is that it becomes the basis for defending the decisions managers make about salary increases, promotions, and dismissals. Another aspect is attempting to create comparable data from a series of subjective judgments by a number of supervisors/managers (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Confidential or secret aspects of the administrative process, where very few people know the results, are part of the need to have data to defend a judgment. Related to the preceding aspect is the fact that unless a person files a grievance, at least in the United States, the person seldom is fully informed about what and why certain judgments occurred (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Behavioral goals should help the individual identify areas where improvement is possible or necessary. These goals also identify areas where personal development might be desirable from the organization's point of view. Identifying exceptional performance is also part of the process. Statisticians will tell anyone who will listen that the "bell-shaped" curve is the normal distribution of data; that is, the vast majority of cases will fall into the middle-average part of the curve. On the other hand, anyone who reviews a significant number of appraisal forms knows that most organizations consist of primarily above-average or exceptional employees-mathematically impossible but managerially possible once a year (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.1.11 Corrective Action

Normally there is an organization wide annual formal performance appraisal process. If you want good performance, you should make it an ongoing process. This avoids surprises during the annual review. It also avoids many of the administrative aspects and focuses on the behavioral issues. What you have will be a system that is corrective in character and should produce effective performance from the staff (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Despite the contentions of some human-relations school advocates, you should be willing to show concern when an individual performs in an unacceptable manner—especially when it is a matter of willfulness or neglect. The idea that the superior–subordinate relationship is a delicate, fragile thing that can be easily destroyed by a hasty word or an ill-timed move on the part of the supervisor receives too much emphasis in the human-relations school (Evans & Alire, 2013).

A healthy system provides for a two-way exchange between the managerial leader and the staff member. Each should be free to voice satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Attempts to avoid stress or other issues will solve nothing. When it is necessary to take corrective action—for example, counseling sessions—there are some steps you can follow to make the time as productive as possible. Start by stating the

purpose of the session. Even if the situation has the potential for confrontation, speak quietly and plan on letting the employee talk as much as possible. Listen to the person; do not spend time planning a rebuttal. Periods of silence, even long ones, can serve a good purpose—letting the parties think about what is taking place. Setting a time limit for the session often defeats the goal of the session, as it may take a long time to get to the central issue(s) (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Expect the employee to be unhappy, probably argumentative, and, occasionally, ready to initiate a "personal" attack. It is difficult but important not to take this behavior personally and not to respond in kind. Total resolution is not the only indication of a successful session. Sometimes it takes a series of sessions to reach a complete resolution. Try to end the session on a positive note and, if appropriate, schedule a follow-up session. We subscribe to the "Five Rs" of performance counseling:

(a). Right purpose
(b). Right approach
(c). Right time
(d). Right technique
(e). Right place (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.1.12 Progressive Discipline

A progressive discipline system provides managerial leaders and employees a fair way to slowly address performance issues and to take progressively sterner steps if performance does not improve. Normally, the process starts with oral counseling followed by one or more written warnings that ultimately lead to termination if worse comes to worst. This does not mean that there are not circumstances that will warrant immediate termination. A library requires order and discipline to succeed. Most organizations and human resource departments reason that it is helpful to identify types of conduct that are impermissible and that may lead to disciplinary action, possibly including immediate discharge. Although it is impossible to provide an exhaustive list of all types of impermissible conduct and performance, the following are some examples:

(a). Being insubordinate, including acting improperly toward a supervisor or refusing to perform tasks assigned by a supervisor in the appropriate manner.
(b). Possessing, distributing, selling, using, or being under the influence of alcoholic beverages or illegal drugs while on library property, while on duty, or while operating a vehicle or potentially dangerous equipment leased or owned by the library.
(c). Releasing confidential information.
(d). Stealing or otherwise removing or possessing without authorization property from the library, fellow employees, students, visitors, or anyone on library property.

(e). Altering or falsifying any time-keeping record, intentionally punching another employee's time card, allowing someone else to punch one's own time card, removing any time-keeping record from the designated area without proper authorization, or destroying such a record.

(f). Falsifying or making a material omission on an employment application or any other library record.

(g). Misusing, defacing, destroying, or damaging property of the library, a fellow employee, or a visitor.

(h). Fighting on the property.

(i). Bringing on the property dangerous or unauthorized materials, such as explosives, firearms, or other similar items.

(j). Using force or threatening force (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.1.13 Grievances

At some point in your career, the chances are a situation will arise in which a formal reprimand or dismissal is the only choice. When this happens you might anticipate the employee will file a grievance. Grievances can also arise out of a situation in which there is a union contract. It is important for you to maintain a solid paper record documenting what was done. Such a paper trail may include just a note on the desk calendar recording a discussion with Employee X about Situation Y that took place, or it may include memos or formal depositions. Some writers liken a grievance to various stages of a river, where the goal is to stop the flow of water as quickly as possible. At its source, it is a small trickle from a spring that is very easy to block. If not checked, it can become a small stream as additional issues accumulate and resolution becomes more complex, just as damming the stream is more difficult. As time passes without resolution, more and more baggage becomes attached to the original small issue. The grievance takes on a force of its own (a number of tributaries creating a river). Ultimately, it becomes a major river that is almost impossible to slow or stop (Evans & Alire, 2013).

The river analogy goes further in that a grievance takes many forms. It will follow existing channels—if they exist—or it will cut its own channels. You can dam it up for a while (not resolving the issue), but this only applies constant pressure on the dam and eventually will cause a weak point to collapse. Once the dam breaks, it is impossible to stop the flood; it must run its course. After the course is run, many things will have changed. Having a grievance procedure helps control "the river" by providing a channel for addressing the issue. Most large organizations have a procedure in place to handle such situations when they arise (Evans & Alire, 2013).

A grievable issue means it is work related, and it can be resolved through existing procedures. Very often the first formal step in the grievance process, after the

appropriateness of an issue is determined, is for a person from human resource or a grievance committee/board to meet with the parties, including the supervisor's supervisor, to attempt to resolve the matter without further delay. Failure to resolve things at that time usually results in a formal "hearing" of the case by a group of individuals who have no association with the parties involved. Another step can be taken after the committee/board action, which is to bring in an arbitrator or mediator from outside the organization. Arbitrators/mediators will look for most of the same issues as the grievance committee (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Even the objective outsider's judgment may not be acceptable to the grieving party. That situation is very likely to lead to a lawsuit. The following list notes some of the topics that can (and have) led to lawsuits, illustrating just how complex personnel management has become:

(a). Sexual harassment
(b). Downsizing/reducing the workforce
(c). Discrimination
(d). Wrongful termination
(e). Breach of commercial contracts
(f). Sexual assault
(g). Accidental injury/vehicular injury
(h). AIDS (Evans & Alire, 2013)

7.1.14 Union and Merit Systems

Both unions and merit systems focus primarily on employee rights and benefits, although they cover other employment issues as well. In the case of unions, there may be contract provisions that impact how you handle promotion opportunities and layoffs (seniority). Grievance processes are a concern for both unions and merit systems. Union contracts almost always cover "working conditions"; just what is covered under that heading varies from contract to contract, even within the same organization. The phrase in many job descriptions "other duties as assigned" is usually missing in a union contract; all duties will be clearly assigned. A major challenge in a union situation is when a staff member can elect to join or not join the union. You must remember who is and is not a member when it comes to tasks, and you may have to deal with staff tension between union and nonunion members. That dual situation can also complicate your salary administration responsibilities (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Merit/civil service/public employee systems are a special situation and apply in many government jurisdictions. Again, the details will vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, from the highly structured to relatively loose forms. Also, today there is a growing trend to make the merit system more like what you see in the for-profit sector. The concept of a government employee system based on merit (ability to

perform the work) rather than on political connections goes back to the late nineteenth century. It also was thought to provide equal employment opportunity. The idea of merit led to the testing of a person's ability to perform the work, and this is still a key component for such systems—tests for getting the position and tests for promotions. As you might guess, or know, the notion of testing and equal opportunity are not always comfortable bedfellows (Evans & Alire, 2013).

One issue for both unions and merit systems is employment security (tenure is another label). The issue is also a factor in efforts to "reform" employment practices, especially in governmental environments. Most organizations, including for-profits, have a probation period for the new hire, often including those accepting a promotion. During that period, in theory, the employer can terminate the person for almost any reason. After "passing probation" the employee has greater job security. Under the merit system most employees are "classified"—they can be dismissed only "for cause," with cause clearly spelled out. The other employment category is "at-will"—in such cases the employer has much more freedom to decide who to dismiss and when. Many government jurisdictions are shifting away from classified to at-will. New hires, after a certain date, are at-will, and older employees retain their classified status (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.1.15 Volunteers

Why do we include volunteers in a basic management text? There are at least three reasons. First, a large number of libraries are very dependent on volunteer workers. Second, volunteers and paid part-time staff are the most likely people a beginning librarian will be asked to manage/lead. Third, there is some tendency to think of volunteers as beyond normal management practices, which is a serious mistake. Volunteerism is a major source of assistance for all types of organizations. Some corporations encourage, if not require, their employees to engage in some type of volunteer work outside the workplace. There is a vast pool of talented, energetic, and motivated volunteers, especially retired librarians, to tap and retain. They also can become highly committed to a library's organizational goals, given the proper environment. Part of that environment is thinking about volunteers as just as important to quality service as paid staff members. Creating the proper environment calls for careful thought and planning (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.2 MANAGING MONEY

A budget is a numerical plan for allocating resources to specific activities. Managers typically prepare budgets for revenues, expenses, and large capital expenditures such as equipment. It's not unusual, though, for budgets to be used for

improving time, space, and use of material resources. These types of budgets substitute non-dollar numbers for dollar amounts. Such items as person-hours, capacity utilization, or units of production can be budgeted for daily, weekly, or monthly activities (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

7.2.1 Budget as a Control Device

When people hear the word budget, they typically think of tight restrictions placed on the use of money. The car-rental agency name Budget Rent-A-Car was chosen because of popular thinking that the adjective budget means conservative spending. In management, a budget does place restrictions on the use of money, but the allotted amounts can be quite generous. A budget is a plan, expressed in numerical terms, for allocating resources. The numerical terms typically refer to money, but they could also refer to such things as the amount of energy or the number of laser cartridges used. A budget typically involves cash outflow and inflow. Because a budget outlines a plan for allocating resources, virtually every manager assumes some budget responsibility. Without budgets, keeping track of how much money is spent in comparison to how much money is available would be nearly impossible (DuBrin, 2011).

7.2.2 Budget Preparation

Although budgets give the appearance of being factual, objective documents, judgment, and political tactics enter into budget preparation. When preparing a budget, a manager can impress higher-ups if he or she tracks variables with care and makes sound assumptions. In contrast, if the manager allocates resources poorly or permits too much flab, he or she will lose credibility. There are several recommendations for preparing a sensible budget (DuBrin, 2011).

From a legal point of view, the library's senior manager is responsible for use of the budget as well as its preparation, regardless of how she or he may have delegated authority to expend the funds. Only in the smallest library is the senior manager solely responsible for handling the operational budget. Almost every medium- and large-sized library, with several units and departments, usually has delegated some discretionary spending power to units. Even when there is no budget officer, an effective senior manager, whenever possible, delegates some budgetary responsibility to unit head (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

Budget delegation accomplishes several things. First, it places the day-to-day budget decisions close to user services, making it easier to respond to changing needs. Second, it indicates to unit managers that the senior manager has a high level of trust in them and their abilities. Third, it provides middle managers with an opportunity to gain an understanding of budgeting. It also provides senior management with an opportunity to assess middle managers' potential for promotion to higher levels, which generally

carry greater budgetary responsibility. Finally, it gives the senior manager more time to maintain overall budgetary oversight (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

During the early years of your career, you are unlikely to have major budgeting responsibilities. You may be asked for information, even to provide dollar figures about what you think are the budgetary needs for your work area. The majority of the budgetary process activities are in the hands of senior managerial leaders. That is very reasonable as they, especially the most senior persons, are accountable and responsible for everything that takes place in the library. It is the funding that provides the base for all services and activities. As you progress in your career, you should take every opportunity to learn more and more about library budgeting and how the budget request process operates (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

In a delegated environment, initial budget preparation should begin with the managerial leaders having such responsibility. They provide their estimates of their funding needs and pass the proposal on to the next level or senior managers. Each level further combines and adjusts the requests. Finally, senior management assesses the information and drafts the final request (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

Every library hopes to have a stable or, at best, a predictable fiscal environment. To some extent, the planning cycle assists in creating such an environment. One of the elements involves the senior managers monitoring the library's economic and political environment. By setting up a budget planning committee, senior management accomplishes several things. First, it involves more people in the monitoring activities. Second, it involves others in thinking about future needs of the library. Third, it provides lower level managers with solid budgetary planning and development experience. Finally, it can build commitment to the library as well as generate some understanding of the limits of budgetary freedom (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.2.3 Budget Types

Budgets can be classified in many ways. For example, budgets are sometimes described as either fixed or flexible. A fixed budget allocates expenditures based on a one-time allocation of resources. The organizational unit receives a fixed sum of money that must last for the budget period. A flexible budget allows for variation in the use of resources on the basis of activity. Under a flexible budget, for example, an e-commerce department would receive an increased information technology budget if the department increased the scope of its program. Any type of budget can be classified as fixed or flexible. Many different types of budgets help control costs in profit and non- profit firms.

Budgets commonly used in organizations

Type of Budget and Definition	Notable Characteristic
Master budget—consolidates budgets of various units.	Purpose is to forecast financial statements for entire company.
Cash budget—forecast of cash receipts and payments.	Important control measure because it reflects a firm's ability to meet cash obligations and to invest in new opportunities.
Cash flow budget—prediction of a business firm's cash inflow and outflow over a specified time.	Primary purpose is to predict the firm's capacity to take in more cash than it dispenses.
Revenue-and-expense budget—describes in currency amounts plan for revenues and operating expenses.	Most widely used budget, such as a sales budget to forecast sales and estimate expenses.
Production budget—a detailed plan that identifies the products and services needed to match sales forecast and inventory requirements.	Follows the sales forecast and can be considered a production schedule.
Materials purchase/usage budget—identifies the raw materials and parts that must be purchased to meet production demands.	When accurate, leads to smooth production. Can be used in retailing to purchase merchandise.
Human-resource budget—provides a schedule to identify human-resource needs for future and the compensation requirements.	Needed to satisfy sales and production demands, and predicts whether hiring or layoffs will be required.
Capital expenditure budget—a plan for spending money on assets used to produce goods or services.	Are usually regarded as major expenditures and are tied to long-range plans.

Source: DuBrin (2011)

For libraries, the operating expense (OE) is the primary budget regardless of format (line-item, performance, etc.). Within the total operating budget there is a series of budgets covering specific items of expenditure. These are generally interconnecting and include the following:

(a). A materials budget
(b). A personnel budget
(c). A distribution/expense budget
(d). An administrative expense budget

A materials budget takes the form of funds for collection building and online access services. It must take into account producers' price increases and other anticipated costs, such as currency evaluation (Evans & Alire, 2013).

A personnel budget (salaries and benefits) specifies the amount of direct staffing needed to meet service objectives for the year. When thinking about the personnel costs you may want to consider the difference between employing salaried as compared with hourly wage employees and permanent as compared with contract staff, because the benefits may vary. For public libraries, doing this type of thinking in advance of talks of privatization may pay off in keeping the public library public. Some institutions may require the involvement of the human resources office to ensure that they budget for the proper “type” of employee (Evans & Alire, 2013).

The distribution/expense budget takes into account the estimated costs of a library’s delegating or allocating parts of the overall budget, for example, to branch operations. An administrative expense budget, as the name implies, details those expenses that result from performing general management functions. This might include senior and other administrative salaries, travel expenses, professional library fees, and office expenses (Evans & Alire, 2013).

What are the typical categories of expenditures included in an OE? For libraries, the largest category is staff salaries, often representing as much as 60 to 65 percent of the total budget. This is one category of expense that most libraries cannot move funds to or from or change during a fiscal year. Usually the only way you can use salary monies for some other purpose is by giving up an FTE (full-time equivalent) or at least part of an FTE. Some libraries, in an effort to secure funds for technology, give up several FTEs. While the practice may secure needed funding, you must be certain the technology will reduce personnel costs (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Funds for building collections (electronic and print) are the second largest OE category. These funds may account for 25 to 30 percent of total budget. Like salaries, these funds tend to grow more quickly than most of the other categories (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Generally, there is less than 15 percent of the budget left for all other expense categories. Office supplies, equipment, technology, and maintenance contracts are all essential and take substantial portions of the remaining funds. Telephone, postage, utilities (in some cases), facilities maintenance (in some cases), printing/promotional activities, membership fees, library charges (such as OCLC), administrative and professional travel, bindery charges, and insurance are all categories that many libraries must consider. Is it any wonder that few libraries have much money left for covering professional development and staff training costs and a host of other desirable needs? (Evans & Alire, 2013).

The following are sub-categories of the categories mentioned and indicate the range of activities the remaining 15 percent must cover: small equipment items, such as book trucks, step stools, office chairs, and desks—perhaps to meet changing health and safety standards; exhibit supplies; “security targets” for items in the collection; guidebooks and bibliographic instructional material; interlibrary loan or document delivery fees; and vehicle repair and licenses. The list could go on and on, but the foregoing provides a sense of the budgetary challenges (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Funds raised outside the parent organization for OE purposes are less constrained in terms of usage. There are times such funds are restricted by the donor to a specific purpose. You are likely to encounter restricted and unrestricted funds. The OE is unrestricted; that is, you may spend OE collection funds for any appropriate item. A restricted collection-development fund might require you to buy items only on Middle Eastern archaeology. It is not uncommon for a donor to restrict the expenditure of the gift to areas in which she or he has a special interest. As experienced fundraisers know, securing an unrestricted gift is difficult, as “no one wants to give money for light bulbs and toilet paper (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.2.4 Budget Formats

Before exploring the major budget formats, we need to briefly mention two variations you rarely encounter—lump sum and site budgets. A lump sum budget, as its name implies, is a single allocation, and the funds are not tied to any category of expenditure. You have the freedom to use the funds as needed or, at least, as your governing board deems appropriate. The freedom is wonderful until it comes to accountability, when it becomes akin to wrestling an angry bear with one hand tied behind you. Site budgets are allocations tied to a specific location (a branch, for example) and that all categories of expense. They can be a good method for giving more professionals early experience with managing an entire budget (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Another type is the formula budget. You most commonly encounter a formula budget in educational settings, where student numbers are linked to a funding amount—more students translate into more money. Some public libraries may have something similar, with a per capita figure or percentage of taxes. In an academic library, you are likely to encounter a sub-budget that is formula based—acquisitions. Academic libraries have “used a variety of formulas in an effort to help achieve some balance in spending in support of the teaching departments. Such efforts have never fully satisfied all the faculty members (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.2.5 Fund Accounting

Because the majority of libraries are part of nonprofit organizations, we include a brief section on fund accounting. This is a complex topic, and we can provide only some highlights. Fund accounting is peculiar to nonprofits. Accountants developed the system as a result of nonprofit characteristics of the users and the uses of information. Four of the nonprofits' special characteristics follow:

(a). The focus on social benefits
(b). The relative absence of profit-motivated behavior on the part of resource contributors (public and private).
(c). The special government- and constituent-imposed constraints on their activities
(d). The lack of generating a profit (this is not the same as generating income) (Evans & Alire, 2013)

Users of fund accounting information are a diverse group, both internal and external to the organization. There are similarities between fund accounting and for-profit accounting systems. However, profit enterprises use a single-entry focus, while fund accounting usually involves many fragmented financial reports. Such reports focus on separate individual funds and the flow of liquid assets rather than income (Evans & Alire, 2013).

The general fund exists to account for the unrestricted resources as well as resources not accounted for in any other group of accounts. General fund operating statements show revenues, expenditures, and encumbrances, as well as changes in fund balances. Debit funds track resources segregated for paying interest and principal on a general obligation debt. Many libraries have new facilities paid for in full, or in part, by bond issues—a general obligation debt. Capital project funds control resources for the purpose of acquiring major fixed assets. Reports on capital project funds seek to list sources, uses, and available resources for individual projects. Most library facilities projects are a combination of monies from public and private sources; such monies would be part of the capital project fund (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

A special-revenue fund accounts for, and reports on, resources that come from special sources—for example, a library foundation—or that carry restrictions on their use. Some libraries have endowments that would fall into this category. Some municipalities, and some academic institutions, engage in some form of commercial activities. Enterprise funds control activities that provide goods or services to the general public (Friends of the Library merchandise, for example) or user charges (photocopy charges are common). Library photocopy income would be part of the enterprise fund. Internal library funds are similar except the "customer" is part of the organization. You may encounter "chargeback" situations

in which a non-library unit charges the library a fee for its services; two common chargeback areas are computing and building maintenance (Evans, & Alire, 2013). While library managers may have little direct involvement in fund accounting, they do have substantial indirect contact, whether they know it or not. Having some knowledge of fund accounting will assist in working more effectively with funding authorities (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

7.2.6 Audits and Auditors

External and internal audits are the two broad categories. Almost every for-profit and non-profit must have an annual external audit conducted by an independent auditor. Normally, an independent auditor is a certified public accounting (CPA) firm. There are two major purposes of the annual audit. The first is to ensure that financial accounts and statements are accurate. Second is to ensure that the organization is following generally accepted accounting principles. Such audits, because of their legal implications, are very thorough. A library that is part of an organization that must have an annual external audit may expect occasional, if not annual, visits from the independent auditor. You never know exactly what the auditors will want to review until they arrive; however, more often than not, it will be the collection-development fund accounts. This is because there are so many financial transactions involved in acquisitions work (Evans, & Alire, 2013).
Internal audits, or operational audits, may or may not be fiscal in nature. Some of typical audits are these:

(a). Financial records (records must be accurate, proper, and in order)
(b). Compliance (reviews both internal and external policies and procedures)
(c). Operational (evaluates effectiveness and/or efficiency of an operation)
(d). Performance (purchasing, receiving, and payment records must follow proper fiscal and accounting regulations)
(e). Fact finding (official job classifications and descriptions must accurately reflect the work being done) (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

More often than not, parent body employees conduct the internal audit. These employees usually report to the chief operating officer of an organization in order to ensure their independence of judgment. Compliance and operational audits may use “outside consultants in order to have the depth of knowledge needed to make judgments about a particular area (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

7.2.7 Budget Reports

There are types of budget reports that you will need to become familiar with as your career moves forward. There is of course the annual budget form that shows the allocations. There is the monthly reconciliation report (often internal to the library) showing balances for what has been expended and encumbered and what remains (free). Acquisitions, collection-development personnel, as well as senior managers are interested in what these reports show. There is something similar from the

parent financial office showing the differences between allocated and expended amounts (variance). Such reports are useful for many categories of expenditures, such as supplies and salaries. More important, they are terribly valuable for collection funds and other categories where encumbrances are key to knowing where you stand with the budget (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

Another type of report is the targeted report. Such reports allow you to assess the costs in a specific area. Again for collection management, the library may have a single budget category from the parent institution for collection development. You might do a targeted report to determine how much of that large pool has been spent on children's books, electronic resources, media, and so forth. This type of information is very useful in planning the new budget request, making adjustments during the fiscal year, and allocating funds to departments in the case of an academic library (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

7.2.8 Income Generation

Developing and maintaining a positive image is important for all libraries—and it is essential for fundraising. There will be no opportunity for securing funds if the library's image is anything but positive. However, having a positive image is not enough. You must communicate that image to users, the general public, as well as to prospective sources of new funding. Granting agencies are just as interested in the image of their grantees as are individual donors (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

We indicated earlier that finding sources of funding, other than the parent institution, for "light bulbs and toilet paper" is a challenge. Most foundations, donors, and other grant-giving organizations are interested in funding only special projects that have a very high probability of success. Securing funding for this activity may free up general operating funds for important or special activities that are underfunded. There will be competition from other libraries and other organizations seeking extra funding, and it will require an investment of time and collaboration within the organization if it is to be successful (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

Fundraising, while it may have to be a part-time activity, requires planning and leadership. It will not be effective if it is a matter of "I'll do it when I have time." Only the very large libraries have the luxury of a full-time fundraiser. Most must depend on the efforts of several people who devote some of their time to fundraising—a team approach. As with any team, there needs to be one person in charge to call meetings, set agendas, propose ideas, implement plans, push the initiative forward, and monitor outcomes—in essence, provide the leadership. Generally, that person is the senior or next-most senior manager of the library. One reason for this is because donors want to know they are working with the decision makers (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

Regardless of source, income generation is largely a matter of the right person asking the right source for the right amount for the right project at the right time and in the right way. As you might imagine, getting all those "rights" correct takes planning, practice, preparation, and practical experience. Workshops help, but only real-world experience, and a few disappointments along the way, will translate theory and ideas into money in the library's bank (Evans, & Alire, 2013).

One long-standing internal revenue source for libraries is the sale of duplicate or otherwise unwanted gifts and donations. "Gifts in-kind" to libraries are very common; how libraries dispose of such items varies. Publicly supported libraries need to be aware of any regulations regarding the disposal of "public property." Donors may benefit from a tax deduction for donations in cash or in-kind to charitable or public bodies (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Many libraries impose fines for rule infractions and for lost or damaged items, all of which generate income. How the parent body treats such income can have an impact on your budget; many jurisdictions require that fines go into the general operating fund, not credited to the collecting agency. As you might guess, not getting monies paid for a lost or damaged item can become a drain on your budget, particularly if you must repair or replace the item. This in turn puts more pressure on you to raise monies from somewhere. A similar situation may exist for fees charged for library services, although it is more common that the library retains all or most of that income (Evans & Alire, 2013).

7.3 ACTIVITIES

1. Recruiting and selecting library professionals to require care and thought, including an understanding of legal issues in Pakistan. Prepare a recruiting plan for an acquisition librarian of a public sector university library.

2. Proper orientation of new staff is critical to good long-term work performance. Prepare a two-week training program for a newly selected university system librarian.

3. You have been selected as a chief librarian for a new public library, located in Islamabad, Pakistan. Prepare an annual budget for the library.

4. Assume that your library is a part of a university located in Islamabad, Pakistan. Being a university librarian, which sources would you seek for income generation for your library?

7.4 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is staffing? Why staffing is important in all types of libraries? What is the impact of efficient staffing on library services?

2. How university libraries do opt for the staffing process? Is it important to know about staffing needs?

3. What is a budget? How do different types of libraries prepare a budget? Why funding accounting and audits are important in all types of libraries? Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of both.

4. Why income generation is important for public libraries in Pakistan? Discuss various ways of income generation for the public and university libraries of Pakistan.

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Unit–8

(A) MANAGING TECHNOLOGY
(B) MANAGING AND PLANNING PHYSICAL FACILITIES

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

In the contemporary world, no organization can survive without technology. Since libraries offer different services to clients both face-to-face and virtually, therefore, state-of-the-art technologies are part and parcel of all types of libraries. The information professionals who understand the power of potential emerging technologies contribute more to offering effective and efficient information and knowledge services to their clients. So, knowledge and skills to acquire and use contemporary technologies, for example, automation software, social technologies, data mining technologies, cloud computing, the Internet of things, etc., are imperative for future information professionals. Keeping in view the requirements, this unit sheds light on managing technology as well as managing and planning physical facilities in libraries. Activities and self-assessment questions of this unit would also add value to the learning of students.

OBJECTIVES

Specifically, after reading this unit, you would be able:

- technology’s role in library operations
- staff background and training
- technology planning
- controlling technology costs
- technology issues and libraries
- cloud computing
- social media
- collaboration
- library as place
- managing the facility
- risk management
- disaster management
- sustainability
- planning new space
- moving to a new location

8.1 MANAGING TECHNOLOGY

To meet the challenges of today's information exchange and sharing activities driven by the Internet and the World Wide Web (WWW), more and more academic administrators, executives, faculty, IT specialists, librarians, and other professionals worldwide are seeking new and innovative ways of enhancing and integrating academic information applications, databases, programs, resources, services, and systems in diverse student-centered and service-oriented academic learning environments. To foster and promote practical skills for critical thinking, decision-making, and problem-solving, they need to teach students how to dynamically and interactively access, locate, synthesize, store, and transform multi-format information in interactive academic learning scenarios (Li, 2009).

8.1.1 Technology Role in Library Operations

Contrary to what some people think and write about libraries in a digital world, libraries and their staff are not backward looking; libraries are reasonably quick to adopt new technologies. In some cases, they may be too quick to try something new; one example is e-books when some libraries moved quickly into that area only to find the technology was not ready for the mainstream (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.1.2 Staff Background and Training

One aspect of managing technology involves making certain staff at every level have the necessary background and training to handle the technology in place, as well as the technology it plans to acquire. Funding for staff development opportunities for the professional side of information work is usually limited. The challenge is to decide how to allocate the funds available. With new applications or a major upgrade, having staff do training on their own with a user manual is not good use of their time. Library technology vendors usually offer some level of training for their products. It is often more effective to build training costs into the price of acquiring a system than trying to secure separate funding. Some software vendors offer training packages that are built into the application ("tutoring" programs) often accessed online. Managers should plan for three types of training: entire staff for a new application, new staff members, and the end users. With this in mind, it is evident why training costs should be an item in annual technology budget. Sometimes it is possible to use a mentor approach for library wide training. One advantage is that the mentor is better able to relate to the special needs of her or his coworkers than is a general trainer. Training in groups is more cost effective than the one-on-one approach—this is true for both staff and end users. Two widely used training technologies are multicasting and video-on-demand, which can be implemented on local area networks, corporate wide area networks (intranet), or the Internet (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.1.3 Technology Planning

Managerial leaders must plan for ICT from at least four viewpoints. Most important are the strategic considerations: factors such as competitive differentiation, overall improvement in decision making, and improved operational processes. Thinking about technology both offensively and defensively are also useful exercises. From an offensive viewpoint, considering how to achieve or realize maximum benefit from the use of ICT is vital. Defensively, think in terms of controlled growth and what is happening in other libraries. Critical success factors (CSFs) are the library activities in which "things have to go right" or "failure will hurt performance the most." CSFs are very useful in technology planning. From a library point of view, one of the technology CSFs is network reliability-both intranet and Internet. Another CSF is the reliability of integrated library systems. An additional example of a technology CSF is the integrity of customer database. Such factors become useful in planning architecture and long-term technology needs (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Basic technical issues also play a key role in a successful planning process. It becomes important to have answers to questions such as these:

(a). Are there any organizational policies that influence decision making?
(b). What types of data are required to reach an informed decision?
(c). Which technology offers the greatest payoff in relation to service goals and objectives?
(d). What are the functional advantages, if any, of the new technology?
(e). What are the technical prerequisites for using a specific technology?
(f). If different objectives require different technologies, what are the compatibility issues?
(g). Does library have the infrastructure to support the new technology?
(h). Is the technology an "open system" or proprietary? If proprietary, how difficult would it be to migrate to another system in future?
(i). What technical strategy will be most effective: network or stand-alone?
(j). How will staff and users be affected?
(k). What are the staffing and training requirements?
(l). What are user education requirements?
(m). What are the short- and long-term implications? (Evans & Alire, 2013)

8.1.4 Controlling Technology Costs

Controlling technology costs is a managerial leader's challenge and a budget officer's nightmare. Traditionally, libraries have had two categories of expense that are ongoing and always increasing: salaries and journal subscription costs. There are some techniques for controlling salary expenses, such as not granting additional staff positions, limiting annual salary increases, imposing hiring freezes, and, occasionally, cutting existing positions. Options for controlling subscription price increases are generally fewer, because they are outside your and the parent institution's control.

Many libraries have joined consortia to gain bargaining power with publishers in order to limit the size of price increases. This really only helps keep the increases down. Today, technology costs are the third component in the ever-increasing costs for most libraries. They are also beyond your control. Unlike journals, you rarely are able to "cancel" technology. Today's libraries, and their users, are too dependent on technology to delay expenditures on upgrades and replacements. When a vendor no longer supports a product, you need to either upgrade or face the costs and frustration of attempting to maintain the existing technology on your own. The two most effective tools for controlling technology costs are having a rolling five-year plan and developing a clear understanding of which functionalities are absolutely essential and which would be just "nice" to have (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.1.5 Technology Issues and Libraries and Cloud Computing

Technology can be complex, expensive, and difficult to manage. Many libraries find themselves severely constrained because they don't have adequate specialized personnel and sufficient funding to use technology to its full potential. Cloud computing can help turn the tables, lowering the thresholds of expense and expertise. While this model may not be a good fit for all libraries, or for all the different ways that libraries rely on technology, it's an option "worth investigating and adopting when appropriate and beneficial. Cloud computing takes its name from the way that it's fuzzy, distant, diffuse, and immense. This approach to technology relies on massive aggregations of hardware that form an amorphous mass that as a whole delivers some kind of computing activity. You can't see or touch the cloud—its actual pieces and parts are scattered in data centers, whose exact physical locations you may or may not know. The term cloud computing is used quite freely, tagged to almost any type of virtualized computing environment or any arrangement where the library relies on a remote hosting environment for a major automation component. It's as much a marketing term as a technical one. Some of its characteristics include:

(a). An abstract technology platform that involves generalized access to remote computing resources rather than locally owned and managed discrete servers.

(b). A utility model of computing involving fees charged for levels of use rather than capital investments in hardware or permanent software licenses.

(c). Computing that's provisioned on demand, with resources allocated as needed

(d). Elastic quantity and power of the computing resources that increase at times of peak use and scale down when demand is lower.

(e). Highly clustered and distributed computing infrastructure that spreads computing tasks across many devices to maximize performance with high fault tolerance for the failure of individual components (Breeding, 2012).

8.1.6 Social Media

The term social media is multifaceted and complex, and it has been defined in many different ways. Social media refer to any online platform that allows users to link to each other and contribute and share content and/or commentary. On the whole, social media are intended to facilitate sharing, collaboration, transparency, and conversation of information. Social media aim to form a large, internally communicative collective that works together to create meaning and content. So, instead of a few gatekeepers parsing out information to the masses, in the world of social media the masses produce, evaluate, and share the information themselves. The ultimate output of social media worth investigating and adopting when appropriate and beneficial (Breeding, 2012).

Social media are now part of a library's activities, at least to some degree. There are two primary reasons for libraries to make use of these media. The first reason is to increase awareness (marketing) of its services, programs, new resources, and other activities for users. The second reason is to build or create relationships with its service community (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.1.7 Collaboration

Library technological collaboration revolves around two broad categories that are intra-organizational and extra-organizational. If you have to choose just one area to focus on it should be intra-organizational, as most libraries are dependent on the parent organization's ICT unit for the infrastructure that is necessary to provide web services. Working with library consortia is a means of helping control technology costs—both hardware/software and digital content. As the parent organization became more dependent on technology, it became more cost-effective to have an organization-wide ICT unit rather than multiple departmental units. Costs and coordination of activities became critical. In time, positions such as Chief Information Officer (CIOs) appeared. At times, a chief librarian became the CIO; in other cases it was a computer science person. The challenge of a library is to understand how the priorities get set and how to move up the list. Librarians sometimes do not fully understand just how complex the technology infrastructure is that underlies activities. Working collaboratively is the best political approach. There are signs of a growing trend in collaboration among independent software vendors in libraries rather than the fierce competition that formerly existed. The aim is to lower the cost and technical barriers for services, making it easier to share data more easily. The next developments in collaboration will bring together services across sectors, as government policies encourage linkages between archives, libraries, and museums. This will bring some exciting benefits for users crossing the boundaries, for example, between information and cultural services. It creates the need for e-leaders (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.2 MANAGING AND PLANNING PHYSICAL FACILITIES

People have been predicting the demise of print materials and libraries for some time now. As a young librarian interested in library design and renovation, one of the authors participated in a meeting in the late 1960s on the future of library building design. Several of the participants were adamant that in less than 20 years there would be no need to design new buildings, and existing libraries would be just seldom-visited museums because of technology. However, little has changed over the past 45 plus years-books, magazines, and newspapers are still available in print form, libraries continue to acquire such items every year, and new buildings and additions are being built to house the growing collections. Will this pattern continue indefinitely? Probably not, but library as a physical space is highly likely to do so. Libraries have and certainly will continue to evolve as technology and society change. Libraries now physically accommodate noisy and quiet collaborations, media experiences including gaming and movies, comfortable seating for individuals and for groups, quiet study areas, popular materials and displays designed for impulse purchases, activity areas for messy work in the children's spaces, craft areas, spaces for families with babies and toddlers, iconic spaces (tree houses!), bookstores, convenient and fast checkout, computers and computer labs, program and learning spaces, book clubs, and more (Evans & Alire, 2013).

The following sections explain the management of physical facilities in libraries.

8.2.1 Library as Place

Throughout the thousands of years of their existence, libraries have been places where people congregate, think, and collaborate. This is unlikely to change in the foreseeable future. Although what they work with may change in format, it will still be content that has to be acquired and made available in some manner. All this implies is that there is a need for some physical space (Evans & Alire, 2013). One of the fascinating things that we are now observing is the impact of redesigned library space on the so-called "psychosocial" aspects of an academic community. The library's primary role is to advance and enrich the student's educational experience; however, by cutting across all disciplines and functions, the library also serves a significant social role. It is a place where people come together on levels and in ways that they might not in the residence hall, classroom, or off-campus location. Upon entering the library, the student becomes part of a larger community—a community that endows one with a greater sense of self and higher purpose. Students inform us that they want their library to "feel bigger than they are." They want to be part of the richness of the tradition of scholarship as well as its expectation of the future. They want to experience a sense of inspiration (Freeman, Bennett, Demas, Frischer, Peterson, & Oliver, 2005).

Early examples of incorporating the idea of social space into library design can be seen in Nordic country libraries, which have done this for a very long time. Most of the large public libraries have had restaurants and cafes in their facilities for more than 50 years. Also, many are part of the community's cultural complex libraries, meeting halls, museums, and theatres. Having a cafe associated with or in a library is becoming more common in new U.S. library buildings. As library collections become increasingly digital, there is less concern about having a "no food in the library" policy. The underlying reason for such policies was concern about insect infestations and their potential health issues for both people and collections (Evans & Alire, 2013).

A final thought, or caution, about the library as place is that some libraries, especially academic and school, face the challenge of a senior institutional manager having the notion that "everything is digital, so the library does not need all that space. Senior managers receive more requests for additional space than is available or likely to become available through construction. In practice, library collections grow annually, services and user populations also increase, and that's why it need more space to accommodate all (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.2.2 Managing the Facility

There are two broad aspects to managing library as a building. First, there are the daily issues of keeping the facility safe, healthy, and inviting for users as well as protecting the community's investments (collections and equipment). The second is something you may become involved in some time during your career-renovating or designing a facility (Evans, Saponaro, Christie & Sinwell, 2015).

On a daily basis, housekeeping is an issue. Poor housekeeping can affect the health and safety of staff, users, and collections. It starts with basic questions about such tasks as who picks up litter and empties wastebaskets and how frequently. How often are restrooms cleaned and provisioned, especially those for the public? Does custodial staff have responsibility to dust the books and shelves? How often and who vacuums/cleans the floors? Does anyone have the responsibility? These may seem like small problems, but there are health issues involved more for staff than for users (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Staff can become sick from extended exposure to "collection dust", a fact certified by medical professionals. In extreme cases, the person may be unable to return to work. Beyond the health issue, which is serious but not that common, there is the health of the collection to consider. Dust and dirt on the shelves act as a very fine abrasive on materials as users and staff pull them off and replace them on the shelves. Over time, the small damage from such cycles accumulates to the point

that the item needs repair or replacement. You have to balance the annual cost of such repairs and replacement against the cost of having shelves dusted. Dust also plays havoc with computers, photocopiers, and other equipment (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.2.3 Emergency and Disaster Management

Emergencies happen. For the staff, few events are more stressful than at night or on the weekend when a person comes to the desk and says, "I'm not sure what is wrong, but there is a person on the floor not moving," or "I just saw a man on third floor holding a gun." You may never hear either of those statements; however, there is a very good chance you will hear something equally disquieting. Perhaps the most common disaster is water damage and not just from major storms or firefighting efforts. Water pipes and radiators break, and this may happen when the library is closed; a day may pass before anyone notices the problem. Even an unremarkable rainfall can cause damage if building maintenance has been deferred for too long (Evans, Saponaro, Christie, & Sinwell, 2015).

Having emergency and disaster preparedness plans ready to put into action when necessary will make both the staff and users safer. Consider separating the two documents to make it easier for the staff to find the appropriate information, if they don't already know what to do. Working with local police/institutional security, fire departments, and emergency medical technician groups about what to and not to do gives the staff a greater sense of confidence. Having more confidence and knowing what to do results in less stress and very likely a more positive outcome (Evans, Saponaro, Christie, & Sinwell, 2015).

Disaster preparedness teams attempt to identify the major risks (fire, floods, earthquakes, etc.). During the course of your career, you are likely to have to deal with one or more major facility disasters. Having a plan for handling such events will help reduce some of the stress the event(s) bring. Developing such plans requires time and effort but is essential. All library departments must be involved in creating the plans. Using a steering committee composed of representatives from each department is an effective method for developing and, importantly, periodically updating the plan. A successful plan will include the following:

(a). A realistic assessment of potential disasters.

(b). A consideration of the differences between handling a library disaster and handling one that is part of a larger local or regional disaster.

(c). A determination of collection salvage priorities.

(d). A determination of insurance coverage and authority to commit funds for recovery.

(e). Procedures to activate when a disaster, or incident, occurs.

(f). Staff training to ensure that the procedures work and that staff are aware of them.

(g). A telephone tree for emergency telephone calls, starting with the person who will direct the recovery efforts.

(h). Skeletal forms on the library's website that can be completed immediately upon the disaster occurrence that informs staff and users and updates them on a daily basis (The staff form must be on the library intranet, whereas the information for the community is on the Internet.).

(i). A list with telephone numbers of recovery resource vendors and service providers.

(j). Creating a schedule for regular review of the operation of the plan and updating information.

(k). Developing a partnership with a local library to which users can be directed when a disaster strikes (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.2.4 Sustainability

Sustainability has been defined as a company's ability to achieve its business goals and increase long-term shareholder value by integrating economic, environmental, and social opportunities into its business strategies. Sustainability issues are now moving up the agenda of business leaders and the boards of thousands of companies (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

A manager wishing to encourage more sustainable performance within their organisation will be engaging on a process of influence – and to achieve their aims they will need to use both interpersonal and positional sources of power to influence others. They will need to gain the support of those above them in the organisation, as well as of other possibly significant stakeholders over whom they have no formal authority – customers, suppliers, bankers and so on (Boddy, 2016).

8.2.5 Planning for New Space

Only a few librarians will experience active involvement in planning a major addition, remodeling project, or totally new facility. Many librarians look forward to such a project, but only a few look forward to doing it a second time. Perhaps the major reason for the less positive view is that almost all building projects become a series of compromises, some the library wins and many the parent organization, architect, and/or budget managers win. This is especially true when attempting to plan a facility capable of handling growth for 20 years or more and predicting the changes that may happen in that time. Perceived needs far exceed the funds available, resulting in a downsizing of the facility size or in the fit-out and equipment installed—and sometimes in all of them. The longer the time between funding the project and its completion, the greater will be the downsizing, as costs

generally escalate. The process is often labeled “value engineering”—a fancy way of saying cost cutting.

In an ideal situation, a new facility should be:

(a). Flexible
(b). Adaptable
(c). Expandable
(d). Accessible
(e). Compact
(f). Stable in climate control
(g). Secure
(h). Attractive
(i). Economical to operate and maintain
(j). Comfortable
(k). Varied (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Planning any new building is a complicated task involving highly detailed data, down to the required nail and screw sizes. Archives and libraries are very complex building types, almost as complex as a hospital. Few librarians have experience with designing a new library, and even fewer have that experience more than once. Also, there are few architects with library design experience, although the numbers seem to be increasing. Thus, having an experienced person is highly advisable. The consultant is usually the person with the greatest experience in developing effective designs for library operations. A consultant’s role is to ensure that the interior design will be functional with the appropriate level of detail required for an effective and efficient archive or library. The input of an interior designer is useful, as he or she can take the vision, image, and ambiance that the library seeks to project and translate it into the finished space (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.2.6 Moving to New Location

Moving a collection to its new location can be challenging for library staff members. Somehow, moving costs, probably because they are incurred during the last stage of the process, never seem to be adequate for the job at hand. Extras along the way have eaten into the project funds. So, the staff has a dual challenge. The first is moving the materials from point X to point Y and maintaining the proper sequence for the material as this is not as easy a planning task as it might seem. The second is to complete the first task with the funds available. The ideal solution is to employ professional movers who have experience in moving collections. Options beyond that are many, all the way up to trying to get enough volunteers to do the job for free. When considering all the options in cost terms, it is vital to calculate increased staff costs in the supervision of putting things back in order after the move is complete. Change is stressful, and sometimes some of the compromises required

generate staff unhappiness. The staff actively involved in the planning process must make a major effort to communicate quickly, frequently, and accurately to the rest of the staff about progress, changes, and the reasons for change (Evans & Alire, 2013).

8.3 ACTIVITIES

1. Define five potential emerging technologies which could apply to academic libraries.

2. Why do we say emerging technologies are innovative approaches? Explain your answer with solid examples.

3. In your opinion, which emerging technologies could greatly impact our human society and social life soon?

4. Do you think that academic libraries could use cloud computing? Why? Or, why not?

5. What kind of roles do you think that emerging technologies will play in a dynamic academic learning environment?

6. Which emerging technology do you think will have a significant impact on human society in the twenty-first century? Why?

7. Reflect on the past five years over that period, how has technology changed the way library functions and serve their customers? How has the Internet affected library business to date? What technological advances foresee significantly impacting higher education libraries?

8.4 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Why library professionals in Pakistan are reluctant to adopt state-of-the-art technologies in libraries? Explain how technology is important for Pakistani libraries in the contemporary age?

2. What is cloud computing? Is cloud computing a viable option for Pakistani university libraries? What are the key advantages of the adoption of cloud computing in university libraries?

3. Why library need more spaces?

4. Why organizations/universities are reluctant to give more space to libraries?

5. What are the key points for consideration for a successful disaster management plan?

6. What key factors are to be considered while planning a new space for a library?

7. Explain why change is stressful in the context of moving a library to a new place?

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Unit–9

(A) ETHICS
(B) PLANNING YOUR CAREER

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Every profession develops ethics and standards to serve the community. Like other professions, librarianship also emphasizes that library science departments should teach professional ethics to LIS students. So, this unit addresses standards, values, and codes of ethics. Secondly, how an information professional should plan his career considering self-assessment, knowing career options, mentoring, networking, and marketing itself. Finally, how and why an information professional can maintain a balance between professional and social life? Activities and self-assessment questions also shed light to support the self-learning of students.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you would be able:

- ethics and their role in professional life
- ala's code of ethics
- career planning process
- role of a mentor in career planning
- work-life balance issues

9.1 ETHICS

The term ethics has been defined as an inquiry into the nature and grounds of morality where the term morality is taken to mean moral judgments, standards and rules of conduct. Ethics has also been called the study and philosophy of human conduct, with an emphasis on determining right and wrong. One difference between an ordinary decision and an ethical one lies in the point where the accepted rules no longer serve, and the decision maker is faced with the responsibility for weighing values and reaching a judgment in a situation which is not quite the same as any he or she has faced before. Another difference relates to the amount of emphasis that decision makers place on their own values and accepted practices within their company. Consequently, values and judgments play a critical role when we make ethical decisions (Ferrell & Fraedrich, 2015).

9.1.1 Why Ethics Matter

Professional values and ethical reasoning are traits valued by all good employers. In fact, employees' sound ethical decisions lead to higher profits in the long run. Workplace research indicates that employees are more likely to be unethical when they are dissatisfied with. For example, the freedom to determine a comfortable work-life balance for oneself all influenced by the organization's positive relationship with its employees which lead to a more ethical workplace. Ethics sets the standards that govern our personal and professional behavior. To conduct business ethically, we must choose to be a professional of integrity. The first steps are to ask ourselves how we define success and to understand that integrity calls on us to act in a way that is consistent with our words. There is a distinct difference between legal compliance and ethical responsibility, and the law does not fully address all ethical dilemmas that businesses face. Sound ethical practice meets the company's culture, mission, or policies above and beyond legal responsibilities (Byars & Stanberry, 2018).

9.1.2 Standards, Values and Codes

Most companies begin the process of establishing organizational ethics programs by developing codes of conduct, which are formal statements that describe what an organization expects of its employees. Such statements may take three different forms: a code of ethics, a code of conduct, and a statement of values. A code of ethics is the most comprehensive and consists of general statements, sometimes altruistic or inspirational, that serve as principles and the basis for rules of conduct. A code of ethics generally specifies methods for reporting violations, disciplinary action for violations, and a structure of due process. A code of conduct is a written document that may contain some inspirational statements but usually specifies acceptable or unacceptable types of behavior. A code of conduct is more akin to a regulatory set of rules and, as such, tends to elicit less debate about specific actions (Ferrell & Fraedrich, 2015).

9.1.3 ALA's Code of Ethics

American Library Association (ALA) Code of Ethics is the responsibility of the Committee on Professional Ethics (COPE). The Code of Ethics is the document that translates the values of intellectual freedom that define the profession of librarianship into broad principles that may be used by individual members of that profession as well as by others employed in a library as a framework for dealing with situations involving ethical conflicts. As members of the American Library Association, we recognize the importance of codifying and making known to the profession and to the general public the ethical principles that guide the work of librarians, other professionals providing information services, library trustees and library staffs. Ethical dilemmas occur when values are in conflict. The American Library Association Code of Ethics states the values to which we are committed, and embodies the ethical responsibilities of the profession in this changing information environment.

We significantly influence or control the selection, organization, preservation, and dissemination of information. In a political system grounded in an informed citizenry, we are members of a profession explicitly committed to intellectual freedom and the freedom of access to information. We have a special obligation to ensure the free flow of information and ideas to present and future generations.
The principles of this Code are expressed in broad statements to guide ethical decision making. These statements provide a framework; they cannot and do not dictate conduct to cover particular situations.

(a). We provide the highest level of service to all library users through appropriate and usefully organized resources; equitable service policies; equitable access; and accurate, unbiased, and courteous responses to all requests.

(b). We uphold the principles of intellectual freedom and resist all efforts to censor library resources.

(c). We protect each library user's right to privacy and confidentiality with respect to information sought or received and resources consulted, borrowed, acquired or transmitted.

(d). We respect intellectual property rights and advocate balance between the interests of information users and rights holders.

(e). We treat co-workers and other colleagues with respect, fairness, and good faith, and advocate conditions of employment that safeguard the rights and welfare of all employees of our institutions.

(f). We do not advance private interests at the expense of library users, colleagues, or our employing institutions.

(g). We distinguish between our personal convictions and professional duties and do not allow our personal beliefs to interfere with fair representation of the aims of our institutions or the provision of access to their information resources.

(h). We strive for excellence in the profession by maintaining and enhancing our own knowledge and skills, by encouraging the professional development of co-workers, and by fostering the aspirations of potential members of the profession (American Library Association, 2017).

9.2 PLANNING YOUR CAREER

You may be wondering why you need to study management. If you're majoring in accounting or marketing, library science or any field other than management, you may not understand how studying management is going to help you in your career. One of the important reasons for studying management is the reality that for most of you, once you graduate from college and begin your career, you will either manage or be managed. For those who plan to be managers, an understanding of management forms the foundation upon which to build your management skills. For those of you who don't see yourself managing, you're still likely to have to work with managers (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). People differ in their approach to career planning. Some set long-term goals, knowing where they want to be in five, ten, or even twenty years; others tend to seize opportunities as they arise. Regardless of the preferred approach, the presenters recommended a certain amount of strategic planning. Understanding goals, skills, and the job market will enable the librarian to take advantage of career opportunities. Career planning involves assessing one's goals and ideal working environment (Shontz, & Oberg, 2002).

9.3 CAREER PLANNING PROCESS

As a librarian you are a lifelong learner. This should not change when you assume new responsibilities. Just as your coursework in library school did not fully prepare you, neither will the management and education leadership classes you took ready you for the reality of administrative life. For career planning students may consider following areas.

9.3.1 Self-Assessment

Once you have a general picture of what you want in your career, think about the skills, talents, and knowledge you already possess that can help you get to that point. Finding new ways to use and develop the skills you have acquired as an information professional is essential from the moment you begin to contemplate an alternative path. Skills and strengths that may be tangential or even unused in your current job may grow to become integral to your new career; those that you think of only in the library context can be reframed and used in other contexts. This can sometimes be as simple as changing the language you use to describe what you do (Gordon, 2008).

9.3.2 Knowing Career Options

Exploring multiple paths is also an option when a career- or self-assessment process shows you have strengths and interests in multiple fields. You can certainly pick just one or decide to explore these sequentially, but you can also choose to pursue more than one path at the same time. Your library background most likely prepared

you to wear multiple hats, so carry this competency through to your new career path. Why place artificial limits on what you can do, on your job title, or on your career? Working for yourself generally requires that you rely less on job titles to define you, finding security in what you do, rather than what you are called. Multiple specialties can also make you more marketable (Gordon, 2008).

Traditionally, there are primarily three career tracks librarians may pursue, with some overlap between them depending on the individual institutional expectations and job descriptions. The first track is the career librarian. These librarians have focused their development on the professional assignment or job description. They build expert knowledge in a manner that focuses on specific resources and operations of an organization in order to address the needs of library users. Many librarians spend their entire careers doing special formats cataloging or honing their skills as reference librarians. The second track is that of the scholar. Usually found at academic, faculty-status institutions, these are librarians who often have advanced subject degrees and spend significant time and effort conducting published research that will benefit both the library profession and the world of their subject knowledge as a whole. They work as peer researchers with faculty and may liaise with a particular academic department or focus on developing collections through acquiring or cataloging a narrow area. The third career track available to librarians, is that of library management. Depending on the size and organizational structure of an institution, this is commonly described as any position at the department/branch head or above (Mosley, 2004).

9.3.3 Mentoring/Networking

A good mentor is someone who has similar interests and is familiar with the area in which you want to develop expertise. Proper mentoring requires good listening skills and a willingness to share personal experiences. A mentor must be supportive, but also honest; or, as one of the presenters put it, is someone with a spine, willing to point you in the right direction and suggest improvements. Be proactive in seeking out a mentor. Do not wait for someone else to approach you and offer to teach you things. Instead, ask questions, attend conferences, read, talk to colleagues, and associate with people who inspire and motivate. When you find a mentor, keep him or her informed of what you are doing. However, be sensitive to the need of the mentor to do his or her own work or to have a bit of personal space (Oberg, Shontz & Harmon, 2002).

The library profession should be lauded for its continuing support in mentoring new librarians. There are many opportunities for new graduates and early-career librarians to gain valuable skills and experience though involvement in programs such as the ALA's Emerging Leaders and through mentoring by more experienced librarians

who take the time to help new librarians settle into the institutional culture. Early-career librarians can make a difference as well. During the transitional phase from student to new professional, early-career librarians arrive with fresh insight and reflections that can be passed down to student workers and graduate students. If new librarians begin to cultivate and mentor student workers, the profession will likely gain a new group of promising leaders. Considering the anticipated mass exodus of librarians over the next decade, it is essential to help avoid this serious leadership shortage. Many academic libraries associated with a graduate school of library science employ graduate students to assist with their training for future careers in librarianship. New librarians have an insight into the transition from school to work. Firstly, having completed rounds of job applications, they can offer graduate students' guidance in writing resumes and cover letters, and extend support with job searches by highlighting useful job posting websites that proved valuable in their own searches. Secondly, students who cannot afford to attend national conferences often seek guidance about becoming involved in professional organizations. More senior librarians may not recall the complex process of getting involved in national organizations and applying for committee appointments for the first time. Many graduate students are likely to appreciate hearing about these first- time experiences with the job application process, professional involvement and writing for publication (Byke & Lowe-Wincentsen, 2014).

Networking is much more than making connections for job advancement. Networking builds professional and personal relationships that enhance the quality and variety of one's career. The presenters sought to answer the following questions:

- What is networking?
- How do I network?
- How do I nurture my network? (Oberg, Shontz, & Harmon, 2002).

There are three basic types of networks. Personal networks might include family, friends, or associates from recreational activities or school. Organizational networks build relationships with supervisors, co-workers, project groups, and committees. Professional networks are built through associations, colleagues, clients, peers, suppliers, alumni groups, electronic discussion lists, etc. All of us are networking, regardless of whether we call it by that name (Oberg, Shontz, & Harmon, 2002).

9.3.4 Marketing Yourself

Throughout childhood, self-promotion is generally frowned upon; however, it is necessary for early-career librarians and other new professionals to begin developing self-promotion skills early in their careers in order to ascend the leadership ladder. Librarianship values professional involvement, and it is often a requirement for promotion and tenure. You can look to both business and leadership

literature to highlight the importance of increasing self-promotion skills. By sharing your achievements and experiences with others, you demonstrate that you are developing professionally and are dedicated to furthering the profession. Though many people, especially the stereotypical librarian, are not comfortable with the idea of self- promotion, we must learn to promote our accomplishments and abilities confidently. We need to put ourselves and our causes in the spotlight by becoming professionally active on a local, national and international level. Our experiences should be shared with others within our organizations so that they may be inspired to follow our lead (Byke & Lowe-Wincentsen, 2014).

9.3.5 Flexible Ways of Working

Before taking your career in a new direction, examine the range of flexible working practices available in organizations today. Because libraries generally operate over extended hours, flexibility is often easier to arrange than in many other types of organizations. Part-time posts may be available. A job-share is one way of retaining professional expertise while an employee moves into a new field. These arrangements can bring benefits to the employer by having a well-qualified and motivated staff member for some hours rather than losing this employee altogether (Evans & Alire, 2013).

Moreover, changes in the labor market have resulted in a greater number of people being employed on limited-term contracts. Contract working provides an opportunity to experience subject areas with a range of employers or in a variety of specialty posts. The employment agencies can assist an individual to manage a career based on contract posts, particularly in the private sector. A number of writers in the management field have suggested that all professionals will develop portfolio careers in the future that involve greater flexibility and more switching between jobs. But there is one precaution to take if stepping back from a permanent or full-time position and that is to consider the vital pension plan, health insurance, and other insurance you will lose (Evans & Alire, 2013).

9.3.6 Career Breaks

Career breaks benefit both the employee and the employer. In some occupations and countries, the need for a break is recognized in the conditions of employment. Academics may be granted study leave. The employer gains benefits, because the person who enjoys a break comes back refreshed and reinvigorated. Another benefit for the staff development program is that another member of the staff has an opportunity to demonstrate her or his skills in a different post. This assists the employer to assess her or his suitability for promotion (Evans & Alire, 2013).

9.3.7 The Work Life Debate

Don't work your life away and burn out. You need to take a break occasionally and refresh. Early-career librarians often feel that they have to prove themselves; however, you can contribute to a greater degree when you are refreshed and relaxed (Byke & Lowe-Wincentsen, 2014).

The ideal work–life balance is a very personal concept. It isn't an obvious, tangible, or static thing that people can identify, get right, and then expect to keep. It's dynamic and has different elements for different people at different times (Bloomsbury, 2005).

Work–life balance is sometimes confused with finding ways to work less or to work flexibly, because for some people these are the most important elements of a good balance. As a general concept, work–life balance is a feeling of being in control of your life, being able to exercise choice, and about finding an equilibrium between your own needs and those of others, whether at work or at home. If you're unhappy about the way things are for you at the moment, don't worry; there's a lot you can do to help yourself. The first step is to pinpoint what being in and out of balance is like for you and to understand the triggers. Once you've worked out those, you can move on to find a solution (Bloomsbury, 2005).

9.3.8 Factors that Contribute to Success

The following factors contribute to success in an individual's life no matter in which direction he/she start his/her career:

- Know yourself, both your strengths and weaknesses.
- Have high standards, both personal and professional, and demonstrate them in your daily work.
- Demonstrate commitment to whatever job you have.
- Cultivate clear thinking, and maintain an objective viewpoint.
- Be reliable.
- Be adaptable.
- Cultivate and never lose your sense of humor.
- Understand the ways that others think.
- Show a concern for others in your professional and personal life, but in unobtrusive ways.
- Keep at the cutting edge of change.
- Develop good communication and influencing skills.
- Acquire political skills.
- Extend your managerial knowledge, and know what the best practices in management thinking are.

- Ensure that you are working effectively as a member of a team at all stages in your career.
- Know how to make decisions, and change them if the situation demands.
- Delegate.
- Maintain control over your own time.
- Recognize mistakes that you have made, and learn from them.
- Believe in yourself.
- Understand that career development requires an investment of time and money.
- Enjoy the job you are doing. If you don't enjoy the one you are in, find another (Evans & Alire, 2013).

9.4 ACTIVITIES

1. Visit a nearby public library. Discuss the ethical issues the library professional are facing. How would you address the ethical issues?

2. Speak with someone in your library who has more professional experience than you. Find out how he/she got into librarianship and the process of how he/she arrived at where he/she is. Identify how he/she is different from you, and, most importantly, find out how he/she is the same.

3. Visit different types of libraries, e.g., academics, special, public, etc., and conduct a short informal interview with library professionals. What factors do contribute to their success in their professional career?

4. Search relevant literature and read to explain, what techniques you would use to market yourself in your organization.

9.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How could you examine the role of ethics in a library environment?

2. Are ALA codes of ethics applicable in the Pakistani librarianship?

3. What is the career planning process? To what extent do information professionals in Pakistan pay attention to career planning?

4. How can you market yourself as information professionals?

5. What are the issues of work/life debate?

6. What factors do contribute to the success of information professionals?

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